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**PUBLIC
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Public Personnel Review

*The quarterly journal of the Civil Service Assembly
of the United States and Canada, devoted to the
improvement of standards and practices in public
personnel administration.*

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THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY of the United States and Canada is a non-profit association of public agencies, officials, and private citizens engaged or interested in public personnel administration. The constituent public agencies of the Assembly are civil service commissions and boards, or personnel offices serving a particular governmental department or division. They serve national, state, and local governments of the United States, and Dominion, provincial, and local areas in Canada. The Assembly was organized in 1906 by officials and others actually engaged in civil service and other public personnel activities in order to provide mutual help in meeting common problems and to improve public personnel administration.

Membership in the Assembly is open to both agencies and individuals. Any public personnel agency vested with legal authority to administer a formal system of public employment is eligible for active agency membership, and any person actively engaged in the field of public personnel administration is eligible for active individual membership. Agencies and individuals interested in public personnel administration, but not actively engaged in the field, are eligible for affiliate membership. Students and apprentices in the field are eligible for student membership.

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Congress and the Civil Service

LEONARD D. WHITE

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CONGRESS and the civil service have deteriorated in the last few years. They are now the anxious concern of thoughtful men on both sides of the government. That they should be restored to a position of mutual confidence and respect no one would deny. To assert that either party is blameless would be to state an obvious untruth. There is fault on both sides, and misunderstanding. But Congress is the court of last resort and upon Congress rests a primary responsibility to take the initiative in reversing the unsatisfactory trend of recent years. It cannot do so by banishing individuals whom it does not like, nor by contenting itself with a reduction of the number of employees or curtailment of the powers of federal agencies. The remedies must reach more deeply seated problems.

THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF CONGRESS

WHAT CONGRESS HAS DECISIVE RESPONSIBILITIES for the quality of the public service is beyond debate. It is the lawmaking and appropriating authority, it is the grand inquest of the nation, and it is the central governing power to which all administrative agencies recognize a close responsibility. It speaks for the people and, in the long run, creates the kind of public service which people want. Congressmen, however, have an obligation to educate citizens to understand the kind of public service which they must have if their needs are to be met. This is not the kind which Andrew Jackson believed adequate for his fellow citizens over a hundred years ago.

We may ask what are the minimum responsibilities of Congress for the federal service?

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There will probably be no disagreement on these propositions. (1) Congress must fix and determine the basic policies of personnel management. (2) Congress must vest adequate power in the appropriate executive agencies, with clearly defined responsibilities, to permit realization of these basic policies. (3) Congress must provide adequate funds for personnel work, and is entitled to be satisfied that they are effectively used. (4) Congress must keep itself intelligently informed concerning the operation of basic policies and operating procedures, in order to supply from time to time remedial legislation and to serve as "the people's voice." (5) Congress must defend the public service which it has created against uninformed and deliberately hostile criticism; if criticism is well-founded Congress should supply the remedy or direct the executive to do so, but if not justified, it is the business of congressmen to defend their handiwork.

IT IS ALSO POSSIBLE TO STATE some activities affecting the personnel system which congressmen should avoid if a healthy public service is to be preserved and wholesome relationships between legislators and administrators maintained. Congress, and congressmen, should refuse to interfere in decisions on particular cases of appointment, assignment, promotion, transfer, discipline, or other similar transactions. Their only concern is to be satisfied that rules are followed and petty persecution avoided. There is no excuse, for example, for singling out individual employees to deny them the right of employment as in the recent (and still pending) case of Messrs. Lovett, Watson, and Dodd. There is, however, no objection *in principle* to the passage of legislation general in character denying employment to classes of persons, such as aliens or persons holding subversive views.

These restraints which Congress should observe spring from two related propositions. Legislative bodies and their individual members should refrain from injecting political considerations into personnel management. In more progressive jurisdictions the appropriateness of this rule would be recognized, if not always followed. In the laggard areas it would be denied. The second corollary is that legislators should abstain from building within the executive departments personal machines resting on mutual concessions and favors. The reason for these restrictions is obvious. The civil service does not belong either to the party or to individual congressmen. It is an agency supported by public funds to achieve public purposes which Congress has approved.

It may be added that a sound public service requires further restraints on the part of Congress. There is a tendency to correct by legislation admitted evils which could better be corrected by executive action progressively adapted to the needs of the case. Unfortunately many congressmen believe that action by them is the only way to secure results; and they can cite some evidence.

CONGRESSIONAL CRITICISM

AN EVEN GREATER EVIL lies in uninformed, ignorant, and irresponsible criticism of the civil service. The ill temper of a good many persons, inside and outside Congress, is being discharged by wholly unwarranted outbursts against the "bureaucracy." All changes are rung on this derogatory term: the members of the civil service are called "bureaucratic termites," "a hateful bureaucracy," "an irresponsible bureaucracy," "bureaucratic tax-eaters," and so on through the vocabulary. "Bureaucracy" is the contemporary bugaboo, and in the political campaign some months ahead we shall hear a good deal of this kind of irresponsible vituperation.

I shall not pause to discuss the problems raised by a small minority of congressmen who insist upon violation of the civil service law and rules in particular cases for the benefit of their constituents. They are few, and nothing much can be done with them. Nor is it necessary to comment on the extraordinary situation which turned up in January, 1944, involving congressional pressure on the Civil Service

Commission to make available a list of former federal workers who still had small refunds due from their retirement contributions. This list, after being given to some members of Congress, later turned up in the hands of a lawyer who offered to collect the refunds for a fee. Disbarment proceedings were initiated against the lawyer, and the Commission had long before taken steps to protect the claimants.¹

I do not pretend that we have a perfect public service. Nor would I deny that some public employees are themselves ill-tempered and forgetful of the fact—as Congressman Ramspeck recently pointed out—that they are all servants of the public, which deserves considerate treatment. Nor would I assert that public authority had not been stretched in some cases to cover debatable ground which might better have been left to Congress to determine. My point is that public outcry against "the bureaucrats" by congressmen is not a helpful remedy for the disease. My point is further that congressmen have a duty to support the civil service where it deserves support that is at least equal to their duty to criticize where it deserves criticism. There is too little of the former, if not too much of the latter.

No one should lose sight of the fact that the public service is an essential element of all government. The federal service was established during the first session of the first Congress in 1789, and nothing could be done until it had been organized and put in motion. It is entitled to respect, not to name-calling. If it is not a perfect agency for carrying on our common affairs, then the business of Congress is to improve it, not to join the chorus black-guarding it.

CONGRESSIONAL POLICY-MAKING

CONGRESS, IN FACT, HAS DISCHARGED much of its duty toward the public service well. Since 1883 it has put on the books the necessary organic legislation on which a modern civil service must rest: the Pendleton Act of 1883, the Retirement Act of 1920, the Classification Act of 1923, to mention only three. The principles of these laws have remained unchanged; their application has been improved. Protection to employees against arbitrary ac-

¹ See the *Washington Post*, January 20, 1944, and subsequent issues of this and other Washington papers.

tion has been provided by the Lloyd-La Follette Act of 1912 and by the Ramspeck Act of 1940. Since 1923 salary levels have been rational and from time to time adjusted to changing economic conditions. In all of these matters Congress was pioneering or following closely on the heels of the leaders in the field. Hesitation to endorse such forward-looking programs as the organization of the Council of Personnel Administration and the creation of departmental personnel offices was due more to lack of information than to hostility.

The present state of federal civil service law, however, leaves much to be desired. Congress has been too ready to legislate on personnel matters far below the level of policy. A fit of congressional indignation (perhaps justified) resolves itself into directory or prohibitory legislation which may be worse than the original evil. Appropriation bills are the usual vehicles for such congressional action. The body of public service law is encumbered with a mass of these particular directions or prohibitions which are often a handicap to good personnel work. They become a handicap because they interfere with the general application of rules; they create exceptions which invite confusion; they cause invidious comparisons and lower morale; and they are often difficult to interpret and to adjust to the prevailing system.

The fault lies in part in the unsatisfactory organization of Congress to discharge its responsibilities for creating and preserving a sound personnel system. The central agency of the House and of the Senate for personnel legislation (excepting postal employees) is the Civil Service Committee, separately organized in each house. The seniority rule in the Senate was responsible for disastrous consequences in civil service matters during the last decade; in the House fortune has been kind. But these committees are not exclusively responsible for civil service legislation. The subcommittees on appropriations furnish fertile ground in which sprout exceptions and derogations and special arrangements of all kinds—arrangements which are not brought as a matter of course to the attention of the Civil Service Committee for its advice. Furthermore, each committee dealing with substantive areas of public policy—such as the Committee on Military Affairs, the Committee on Naval Affairs, the Com-

mittee on Post Office and Post Roads, the Committee on World War Veterans' Legislation, and many others—may propose legislation which affects the personnel system by way of such exceptions or special provisions as appeal to its members.

These particular proposals originating all over the House and Senate come to general attention chiefly through the watchful eyes of the Civil Service Commission. Every bill is examined by the Commission's staff to identify any sections affecting the civil service system. If action is proposed which the Commission believes harmful, the Commission formally sends its views to the sponsor of the bill, to the appropriate committee, and, in important matters, to the chairmen of the Civil Service Committees of the House and Senate. No formal device will serve to secure to any committee full knowledge of pending proposals which may directly or indirectly affect its field of interest. The House Appropriations Committee long ago found the only cure—to rely upon itself by providing staff to read every bill that is introduced. The Civil Service Committees are less well served.

Most of these scattered and confusing pieces of legislation deal with business which is better handled by executive order or departmental regulation. Where to draw the line between law and regulation is perplexing enough. There are no standards or criteria of judgment. No one, so far as known, has tried to define the type of subject matter in the personnel field which is appropriate to law or to executive order. Nor could such a differentiation be readily discovered in practice. The development of such standards, even though not universally acceptable, would provide a more rational basis on which responsibility could be divided between Congress and the executive.

CURRENT QUESTIONS OF RESPONSIBILITY

IT is not difficult to point to current examples of unresolved doubts concerning responsibility for certain phases of personnel work which only Congress can clear up. The Ramspeck Committee now investigating the federal service discovered one. Whose responsibility is it to fix the maximum number of employees in a department, *within* the total number al-

lowed by Congress in making appropriations? Many people, including some congressmen, believed that this authority was vested in the Civil Service Commission. Commissioner Flemming had no trouble in exposing this misunderstanding. Others, including many congressmen, believed that the Bureau of the Budget possessed this power. The Bureau's representatives denied this opinion, but without wholly convincing a skeptical congressional committee. Still others would take the view that each department is the final authority to decide how much of a given appropriation is necessary to fulfill congressional mandates for work to be done. In its interim report, the Ramspeck Committee concluded that, "The bald fact is the uncoordinated departments of the executive branch of the Federal Government lack an over-all, centralized authority with powers of management control. Therein lies one of the basic troubles of personnel duplication, overlapping of functions, and overstaffing. The time has arrived when Congress should give serious consideration to this fundamental ill."²

The Constitution gave the complete answer to this contemporary confusion in 1789. The president was then endowed with the authority to direct and control the work and the staff of the respective departments, within the outer limits which Congress itself sets by appropriation acts. This fact was recognized by Congress in approving the reorganization plans of recent years. If the president's office is still furnished with inadequate authority Congress can add to it. If the administrative agencies to effectuate presidential control are unsatisfactory, Congress has the key to the remedy. It could, for example, reconstruct the agency through which central direction of personnel policy is executed by creating the Office of Civil Service Administration in place of the present Civil Service Commission.

A second example of disputed responsibility arises in determining the seat of authority in the federal government for initiating and managing programs of training for employed personnel. The need for such training, especially

urgent in time of crisis, is admitted by everyone except a logic-ridden minority who insist that every employee, having passed an examination, needs no more training. Despite the urgent and admitted need, in-service training has faltered since Pearl Harbor because authority to take the lead was not clearly and affirmatively vested in any service-wide agency. The George-Deen Act might have become the vehicle for forward-looking action, but the Office of Education failed to furnish the necessary leadership. The Civil Service Commission had no specific authority and blew hot and cold on exploiting such meager responsibilities as it might possess. In view of known congressional opposition to in-service training programs, the slender statutory authority available, and the absence of an appropriation, this hesitation can be understood. The only solution was action by Congress; and Congress remained silent, declining to clarify existing responsibilities or to establish adequate authority.

STARTING POINTS FOR IMPROVED RELATIONS

THESE CONSIDERATIONS POINT to a number of suggestions which, if pursued, might improve the relations between Congress and its public service. The House Committee on Civil Service, headed by an able and intelligent chairman, is now investigating the federal service. It could seize the opportunity to look into the duties and responsibilities of Congress as they affect the civil service. It might draft a "Civil Service Charter" which would, for the first time, set forth proper standards and guide lines. It should be possible to set out in a few general statements what Congress is required to do, and what congressmen should refrain from doing, in personnel management. Scores of "freshmen" appear with every Congress, many of them without any experience in the management of large-scale public business, without any philosophy or understanding of legislative-executive relationships, and in some cases with too much knowledge of partisan control of local public services. A short description of the appropriate relationships between Congress and the federal civil service might do much over a period of years to set more firmly a desirable pattern.

Congress might also reorganize itself for the

² House Committee on the Civil Service, *Investigation of Civilian Employment: Interim Report* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.), 78th Congress, 1st Session, House Report No. 766, p. 12.

better discharge of its duties. It has lost ground relatively, if not absolutely. Congress is too essential a part of our democratic system for anyone to be unconcerned with its loss of prestige. Its effectiveness is seriously handicapped by the seniority rule, by the present conglomeration of committees, and by the negative powers possessed by each of them. Its full usefulness can hardly be restored without a drastic revision of its internal organization and controls.³ Nor can the civil service committees of the House and Senate function with full efficiency as the mentors of the houses in the progressive improvement of the public service until their position is strengthened. Nor can Congress respond to better leadership in the House and Senate until the preponderant majority of members accept the view that the public service is a national asset which it is their business to perfect, and not a convenient means invented to assist them in placing constituents or building up personal machines.

CONGRESS NEEDS MORE INFORMATION about the public service, more frequently presented, more carefully digested, more intelligently planned, than it now receives. The Civil Service Commission took a useful step a few years ago in appointing a liaison officer on Capitol Hill. He is a "trouble shooter," and has done good work. He is expected to help congressmen with their particular problems. He is not expected to supply members of Congress with the kind of organized material which would give perspective, background, current analyses, acquaintance with administrative policies, or insight into emerging problems. The public relations of the Commission have long been neglected, and at this point congressmen are entitled to complain.

It does not need to be added that Congress should clear up as rapidly as possible any am-

biguities that may exist concerning responsibilities for personnel management. The relative duties of the Bureau of the Budget and the Civil Service Commission, the respective positions of departmental personnel officers and the Commission, the relation between the former and their own bureau chiefs, the allocation of such duties as may descend in peacetime from the War Manpower Commission—at all these points a new look at the situation may be required.

Furthermore, the congressional practice of enacting personnel legislation in appropriation bills deserves inspection. Some such enactments should be incorporated in the main body of civil service law, which itself would be clarified by codification. Some of it should be repealed. The practice of inserting personnel legislation in appropriation acts should at least be thoughtfully reconsidered and probably ended or greatly reduced.

Finally, irresponsible abuse of the civil service should no longer disgrace public discussion. It does not add to our understanding of the needs of the public service to call names. "Bureaucracy" and "bureaucrats" are the current terms of abuse, and they deserve to be debunked at the outset. There are weaknesses to be strengthened and faults to be cured. Men of good will had better sit down together to consider the remedies rather than muddy the waters by thoughtless disparagement of an institution which is basically sound.

Especially should it be remembered that, despite its shortcomings, the public service of the country is a great public resource. To repeat a phrase already used, it is a national asset. It is as essential to the fulfillment of our national destiny as legislatures or courts. It is entitled to respect. If it is not a perfect instrument of government, we may recall that assemblies and courts are also less than perfect. The duty of Congress is to improve the public service, not to undermine it.

³ For a thoughtful proposal, see Roland Young, *This is Congress* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1943).

Public Personnel Administration in Brazil

HERSON DE FARIA DORIA

THE FIRST EFFORTS to establish a merit program for the selection of public officials in Brazil were made during the early years of the country's independence but remained unsuccessful—even unknown to the public—for more than a century. These early actions usually took the form of separate, disorganized efforts in individual departments to increase the efficiency of their programs. After the republican advent in 1889 the merit system became a project sporadically mentioned and discussed in the houses of the National Congress but did not achieve legislative action until 1934. In that year the Constitution was rewritten to include the legal basis for a functioning national merit system, which was made effective through the activity of the Commission of Economic and Financial Reform. As a result of the work of this Commission, stimulated by a number of salary complaints from federal employees, the basic statute of the civil service in Brazil (Law No. 284) was passed in October, 1936. This legislation—known as the "Readjustment Act"—provided for the reorganization of a great majority of the federal agencies, the establishment of the so-called professional careers, the beginning of a professional classification plan, and a standardization of salaries.

The Readjustment Act also provided for the creation of the first central agency for the recruitment and selection of civil service personnel. That agency, the "Federal Council of the Civil Service" (*Conselho Federal do Serviço Público Civil*), was formed with purposes which were very similar to those of the United States Civil Service Commission. In July, 1938, after experience had indicated the disad-

vantages of plural administrative control, the Federal Council was replaced by the present organization, the Public Service Department (*Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público*), known as "DASP."¹ In December, 1942, as the result of careful studies carried on by a staff group of the department under the leadership of a deliberative council, composed of the heads of the department's divisions, the Brazilian government passed a bill providing more specific regulations for the structure of DASP.

It will be the purpose of this article to show how this reorganized agency functions with respect to the activities of the divisions whose responsibilities are similar to those of merit system agencies in the United States. A similar work will soon be prepared by members of the department describing the activities of the remaining divisions. Space limitations will prevent this discussion from leading to any detailed analysis of individual functions; rather, it can attempt only to present in skeleton form the basic organizational structure and highlights of the present program.

THE BRAZILIAN CIVIL SERVICE ORGANIZATION

THE BRAZILIAN CIVIL SERVICE organization is under the supervision of a president, appointed by the President of the Republic. The president of the agency has the power to call and preside at meetings of the previously mentioned deliberative council, and has as a special assistant a judicial adviser, who is an expert in the field of legal interpretation of rules, acts, decisions, etc. DASP, being an agency of general overhead management, possesses certain powers outside the scope of those of the United

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¹ Decree-law No. 579, July 30, 1938. DASP had its origin in Article 67 of the Constitution of 1937, which provided for "an administrative department to advise the President of the Republic on methods of improving the public service and to prepare the budget."

States Civil Service Commission; but study of the following list of its activities will reveal many similarities. The duties of DASP include:

1. Giving aid to the President of the Republic in the examination of proposed laws and promoting administrative coordination of departmental activities.
2. Studying departmental organization and the public offices and institutions of the civil service for the purpose of increasing efficiency and promoting sound economy.
3. Preparing budget plans and setting budget controls.
4. Administering the compensation and position-classification programs.
5. Planning a social security program for public employees.
6. Administering the recruitment, selection, and training programs.
7. Establishing cooperation between the federal government and the states, municipalities, and self-supporting governmental institutions for the improvement of administrative activities throughout the country.
8. Instructing the public services in new work methods.
9. Presenting to the President of the Republic a yearly report of the work done and that still in progress.

There are eight functional divisions within DASP. They are concerned respectively with organization and coordination; personnel research; personnel selection; employee training; personnel supervision; matériel; public buildings; and budget. The division of organization and coordination systematically investigates and studies the structure and management of the federal departments to bring about a rational organization and to reduce to a minimum the disadvantages of bureaucracy, in order that the administrative machine may function more efficiently. The research division is charged with problems of position classification and allocation, efficiency rating, promotion of personnel, compensation plans, and social security. The tasks of the division of selection, which as the title signifies is responsible for the recruiting and selection programs, will be more completely analyzed in the following pages. The training division makes recommendations for the improvement of

work methods through training courses, coordinates the exchange of personnel with foreign countries for the same purpose, and supervises the courses of administration organized within the department. The division of personnel supervision not only assures the fulfillment of the Code of Rights and Duties of Officers,² decreed on October 28, 1939, and of the other regulations under which they work, but is now in charge of the duties which were in the past entrusted to the division of supernumeraries.³ The simplification of the system of purchasing, the establishment of standards for supplies, and the development of satisfactory working conditions in the civil service are the responsibilities of the division of matériel.⁴ The division of public buildings supervises construction projects and buildings of the federal public services. The budget division has not yet been fully organized, but provisionally its work is under a special commission of the budget, subordinated to the Ministry of Finance and presided over by the president of DASP.

Beside these divisions there are the following services: the service of administration, designed to execute the programs of personnel, budget, and matériel as applied to the department itself; the service of documents, which includes the supervision of the library of DASP, publication of the periodical journal on administrative affairs, *Revista do Serviço Público*, and the preparation and publication of documents and the material for the annual report. Recently a Council on Personnel Administration and a Council on Matériel Administration were created to facilitate cooperation between DASP and the personnel and matériel officers of the several federal administrative agencies.

² Officers (*funcionários*) is the name given to the incumbents of approximately 56,000 permanent positions.

³ The division of supernumeraries (*extranumerários*) was, until the first months of 1942, the department's unit in charge of classification, appointment, layoff, and transfer of personnel in the supernumerary positions (all positions outside the classified service). The situation of the supernumerary employees is completely explained in the article, "The Brazilian Civil Service," by Fritz Morstein Marx and Bryce Wood, *Inter-American Quarterly*, October, 1940, pp. 42-63.

⁴ The division of matériel has reduced the different types of letterheads used by government offices from some 240 to 5, and has completed the standardization of materials and style of office furniture, according to Marx and Wood, "The Brazilian Civil Service," *Inter-American Quarterly*, October, 1940, p. 48.

CLASSIFICATION AND COMPENSATION

THE SYSTEM OF CLASSIFICATION of civil servants in Brazil is prescribed by Law No. 284 upon the basis of "careers."⁵ The number of careers in the service in 1936 was 130, including nearly 50,000 employees in the classified service. In 1939, the classification plan was extended to include one category of the supernumerary positions, embracing nearly 60,000 additional employees. Since that time only a few new careers have been created and these only by act of the President of the Republic.

According to Law No. 284 the compensation plan is not based on any formal grouping of careers. Instead of a different set of salaries for the different groups of positions (professional and scientific; subprofessional; clerical, administrative and fiscal; custodial) as is found in the organization of the federal civil service in the United States, there are only two types of salary schedules—one for permanent positions and another for the supernumerary positions. The amount of salary of any permanent employee is one of 27 salary rates, identified by an alphabetical symbol. For instance, the Junior Clerk Class E, the Junior Statistician Class E, and the Typist Class E earn the same annual salary of CR\$9,000. For each career there is a salary range fixed by law. A professional career whose beginning positions are in Class D and whose highest positions are in Class G will be under the CR\$7,800 to CR\$13,200 compensation range, with three promotional opportunities (from D to E, from E to F, and from F to G). Table I shows the monthly salaries for the alphabetical classification of permanent positions. As indicated in the table, the same principle is applied to the so-called "functional series" of the supernumerary positions, the only difference being that roman numerals are used instead of the alphabetic symbols. In Table II appear examples of the different salary ranges in some of the professional careers.

It goes without saying that such a classification-compensation plan, as good as it may be, cannot be effective without constant revision. Conditions of work are changing each day; im-

⁵ A "career" includes all professional positions involving the same basic function but with varying degrees of responsibility. All appointments are made to careers rather than to particular positions within the careers.

provement of method, the use of new machines, and changed objectives for work programs are natural expressions of a living organization. The task of following these developments and providing for the continuous adjustment of the classification program to the actual needs of the departments is the responsibility of the classification unit of the research division.

ORGANIZATION FOR RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

THE SELECTION DIVISION, which, as has been mentioned, is responsible for establishing and carrying on the procedures of recruitment and selection, is divided into six sections. The planning section prepares the announcements of examinations. The recruiting section is in charge of the promotion of a nationwide program to attract the applicants with the highest qualifications. The application section distributes and receives the application forms, gives information, processes the forms, and

TABLE I. MONTHLY SALARY RATES FOR THE GRADES OF PERMANENT AND SUPERNUMERARY POSITIONS IN THE BRAZILIAN FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE

Permanent Positions		Supernumerary Positions	
Grade	Rate *	Grade	Rate *
A	Cr\$ 350	I	250
B	450	II	300
C	550	III	350
D	650	IV	400
E	750	V	450
F	900	VI	500
G	1,100	VII	550
H	1,300	VIII	600
I	1,500	IX	650
J	1,800	X	700
K	2,200	XI	750
L	2,600	XII	800
M	3,000	XIII	900
N	3,500	XIV	1,000
O	4,000	XV	1,100
P	4,500	XVI	1,200
Q	5,000	XVII	1,300
R	5,500	XVIII	1,400
S	6,000	XIX	1,500
T	6,500	XX	1,600
U	7,000	XX-A	1,700
V	7,500	XXI	1,800
X	8,000	XXII	1,900
Y	8,500	XXIII	2,000
Z	9,000	XXIV	2,100
Za	9,500	XXV	2,200
Za	10,000	XXVI	2,300
		XXVII	2,400
		XXVIII	2,500

* In 1942 the Brazilian monetary unit was changed to the *cruzeiro*, which is represented by the symbol Cr\$. At current rates of exchange, the *cruzeiro* is equivalent to 5.18 cents in United States currency, although differences in the cost of living between the two countries bring its purchasing power to approximately \$0.25.

TABLE II. GRADE RANGES OF SELECTED "CAREERS" IN THE PERMANENT BRAZILIAN FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE

Careers	Grade Ranges													
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
Janitor	x	x	x	x	x									
Motorist		x	x	x	x	x	x							
Attendant			x	x	x	x								
Clerk, Typist			x	x	x	x	x							
Civil Guard				x	x	x	x	x						
Bookkeeper					x	x	x							
Telegrapher, Junior Statistician					x	x	x	x						
Detective, Archivist, Nurse				x	x	x	x	x	x	x				
Photographer						x	x	x	x					
Radio-telegrapher, Immigration Inspector						x	x	x	x	x				
Chemist							x	x	x	x				
Dentist, Pharmacist, Veterinary								x	x	x	x	x		
Senior Statistician							x	x	x	x	x	x		
Meteorologist, Administrative Officer, Accountant									x	x	x	x		
Engineer									x	x	x	x	x	x
Librarian, Cartographer, Statistician										x	x	x	x	
Educational Technician, Administrative Technician											x	x	x	x
Legal Physician										x	x	x	x	x
Astronomer, Diplomat											x	x	x	x

publishes an approved list of applicants. The examining section helps the examiners during the test construction and scoring periods, prepares instructions for monitoring the examinations, and controls arrangements for holding examinations. The control section performs item analyses of tests for the improvement of the selection process, keeps the records of the division, and carries on the certification procedures.

Groups of carefully selected experts, called "Boards of Examiners," are appointed by the President of DASP from the departments and from the teachers and professors of the colleges and universities. These boards have the entire responsibility for devising valid and objective tests.

Groups of influential local citizens, called "Executive Commissions," composed of individuals who have proved to be sympathetic to the merit system, assume the responsibility for local arrangements for holding examinations, for controlling the execution of the examination program, and for watching zealously over its integrity. The Executive Commissions are assisted by a deputy of DASP sent from Rio de Janeiro in each case with special instructions.

Recruiting Section. The work of the recruiting section is directed toward the following informal groups of careers:

1. The clerical professions, whose principal sources of applicants are the colleges and the secondary schools.

2. The skilled trade group, which is supplied by the technical schools, as well as apprenticeships in private industry.

3. The accounting group, which is obtained from business and commercial schools.

4. The group of highly technical professions, whose applicants are provided by regular courses in the universities.

5. Administrative and educational staff groups and the diplomatic group, which are supplied by the schools and faculties of law, and the teachers' colleges.

The recruiting program includes a number of features. The formal publications prepared by the press and publicity department describing the official activities of DASP include material directed toward recruitment. Newspaper publicity is also sought, and announcements prepared for release are regularly carried as news. Some newspapers have columnists who frequently write commentaries about DASP. Good use has been made of the opportunities which radio provides. The "Hour of Brazil" broadcast and short wave programs of the National Radio of Rio de Janeiro include the principal information about competitive examinations. This program, prepared by the press and publicity department, is broadcast every evening and retransmitted simultaneously by all the Brazilian stations. Short wave transmissions of the "Hour of Brazil" may be heard all over the United States. Poster publicity regarding openings in the service and the distribution of printed examination

announcements are also part of the regular recruiting program. The announcements published in *Revista do Serviço Público* are most detailed in their description of examinations.

Early in the development of the centralized merit system, competitive examinations were held only in Rio de Janeiro; but within a few years the obstacles to nationwide recruiting were eliminated by a greater utilization of the air transportation system. Now all the capital cities of the twenty states have the benefit of an agency that is furnished with the latest examination announcements and the necessary materials for making application. Application forms can not only be obtained in person from these agencies but will also be sent by mail upon request to those who are interested.

Application Section. Completed applications that reach the agencies in the capitals of the states or the application unit in Rio de Janeiro before the closing date, are analyzed by the clerks of the application unit. The results of this analysis are then published in the Brazilian Federal Register. Since the law provides for the temporary appointment of public employees immediately upon the appearance of a vacancy in a position, without any qualification requirements, it is possible to schedule the examinations to fit the needs of the service without disruption of departmental activities. Employees with temporary appointments are automatically considered as applicants for the first examination to be opened for their positions.

Planning Section. The requirements for admission to examinations, established by the planning section of the selection division, are based on careful job analyses that include questionnaires, discussion with supervisors and heads of departments, and, when necessary, actual observation of the work being done. If the law prescribes that the position can be held only by those who are licensed to perform the duties (physicians, lawyers, dentists, pharmacists, veterinaries, etc.), the presentation of registration certificates and diplomas is required as a preliminary step in the application procedure.

Examination announcements are printed in more or less standardized form to include the following information: title and number of

the examination; amount of salary; entrance qualifications, such as age, sex, licenses, etc.; knowledges and abilities required; rules for rating the several parts of the examination; and general information. A very detailed description of the subject matter of the test is shown in the appendices to the announcement. The rules for rating include information about the minimum passing grades and the weight for each part of the examination.

Boards of Examiners. Once the preparations of the recruiting and planning sections are completed, arrangements for the actual testing of applicants begins. Immediately upon the official publication of the names of applicants for a position, a Board of Examiners is appointed. Preparatory meetings of the boards take place in the selection division for a study of the preliminary steps in the construction of the tests. Experts in job analysis from the planning unit, in test construction from the examining unit, and in test analysis from the control unit may be called in to clear up any questions concerning the examining procedure.

CHARACTER OF EXAMINATIONS

TRENDS IN TESTING PROCEDURES clearly point toward more objective and comprehensive tests. The type of items included in the examinations varies considerably: multiple choice, completion, true-false, map-location, and matching forms are the most common. Factors involved in making a choice from among the various types are "practicability" and "convenience." The recent introduction of scoring machines has materially increased the use of multiple choice and true-false items. Written tests of the short-answer type are used in almost all selection of employees for the lowest and medium levels of technical responsibility. The essay type is still used for selection of the highly technical administrative and diplomatic positions, although a number of experiments have been made to show that this tradition in examination technique should be broken.

Although emphasis is placed upon written tests, use is also made of performance tests in an effort to make examinations as practical as possible. Performance tests have been designed, for instance, for the positions of driver, typist,

stenographer, telegrapher, radio-telegrapher, chemist, dentist, meteorologist, engineer, legal physician, and agronomist.

A characteristic of the Brazilian testing program is the extensive utilization of the so-called "tests of knowledge." The use of these tests of the command of specific subjects rather than of general intellectual ability is based on the assumption that many of the positions in the civil service will be better filled with people who already have a fair amount of the information which is considered essential for the exercise of the duties. The subject matter of these tests is made available to all applicants long before the examination. When the information upon which such test is to be based is not available in published form, a cooperative effort is made by the administrative department and the department in which the vacancies exist for the preparation of a book of instructions or the organization of small courses of instruction under the supervision of the best experts in the field. In many cases courses are available only to those applicants who have successfully passed tests of intelligence, aptitude, capacity, and skill.

Many of the intelligence and aptitude tests are prepared through the cooperation of an institute of research of the Ministry of Education called the National Institute of Pedagogical Studies. Within the Institute a group of education technicians are continuously experimenting in an effort to locate those qualities that can be considered as valid prognostic elements for the selection of individuals for the professional careers.

Close cooperation exists between the Institute and DASP in the administration of health and physical examinations. All applicants passing the written, oral, and performance tests must pass these examinations, too, before appointment. The Medical Biometry Service of the Institute establishes the standards for physical examinations, conducts a number of them (those for applicants in Rio de Janeiro), and decides doubtful cases.

ORAL EXAMINATIONS are held only as achievement tests and never as a specific device for the judgment of personality traits such as appearance, poise, voice, bearing, or manner. The most common situations in which

oral examinations are included are the following:

1. When the job analysis shows the necessity for a specific skill or ability which cannot be tested in a written examination. (Immigration inspectors, for instance, must be able to speak and understand foreign languages, inasmuch as most of their working time is spent talking with people at airports, sea ports, and at the frontiers; therefore oral examinations testing ability to use foreign languages are given.)
2. When examiners can best judge performance if it is accompanied by an oral explanation; for instance, during an autopsy made by a candidate for the career of legal physician.
3. When the presentation of a thesis is part of the examination. By putting questions to the candidate, the board verifies authorship and requires the candidate to clarify or defend the ideas presented in the thesis.

Several devices for the reduction of subjectivity in rating oral examinations have been used. The latest one, still in an experimentation period, involves the utilization of the most modern dictaphone machines to record the complete interview. Immediately following the examination, the Board of Examiners has the opportunity to revise its preliminary judgment by playing back the records made during the examination, or by reading transcriptions prepared by a typist.

Examinations for custodial positions and others in which the moral integrity of the employee is a principal qualification include a character investigation. The applicant is requested to present documents attesting to his honesty for use during the investigation. A special commission is designated to perform the investigation with the help of the *Serviço Investigações* (the Brazilian FBI) of the Ministry of Justice.

Examinations for purposes of promotion are similar in procedure to those for classes at the bottom of the careers, the only difference being that they are open exclusively to employees already in the careers. Applications may be accepted for promotion only to the next higher class in the career. Inasmuch as there is no general rule which is applied to promotion in all the careers, the largest number of promotions is still being made on the basis of seniority and efficiency ratings alone.

CONDUCT OF EXAMINATIONS

THE HOLDING OF EXAMINATIONS in the interior of Brazil still depends to a great extent upon centralized control. Deputies of the department, carrying the test booklets, are sent from Rio de Janeiro by plane, ship, or train a few days before the scheduled date of examination. Every precaution is taken to assure impartiality in administration. The test booklets are sent in sealed envelopes, and monitors and supervisors of the examinations are selected carefully by the executive commissions and receive very detailed instructions. Any questions which the monitors or supervisors may raise before or during the examination are referred to the deputies to assure uniformity of conditions for all applicants.

The identification sheets are also kept in sealed envelopes during the rating period. After the papers are rated in Rio de Janeiro, the envelopes are opened in public and any applicant who wishes to do so can witness the identification of test booklets. The key for scoring the papers is posted at this time and a short period is allowed for presentation of appeals. A certificate of classification is furnished to all applicants who are successful in the examinations. They may be appointed any time within two years after the president of DASP has certified approval of the results of the examinations.

AFTER THE RESULTS of an examination have been approved by the president of DASP, the test booklets and other material used in the examination are made available to the research

groups of the several units of the selection division which are concerned with statistical analysis. The most frequent subject of research is the determination of the discriminative value of the examination items. Points of weakness in the items are exposed so that they may be avoided in the future. Correlation studies among the several parts of the examinations are also made. Since in only a few cases can the reliability and validity of a test be previously determined (when its objectivity can be clearly established in terms of production), the trend of the research program in this field is limited to accumulation of data for future studies. Generally the opinions of the members of the boards of examiners, who are experts on the subject matter of the examinations, are the only available measure of validity at the time an examination is held.

Though the organized civil service system in Brazil is relatively new, it has made rapid strides since its inception. There can now be no doubt that newly appointed public officials are being impartially and scientifically selected by methods which adequately test their competence. The compensations offered to public employees in Brazil, such as prestige, tenure, social security, and the possibility for promotion in the professional frame of careers, are contributing effectively to the stability of personnel. This stability, plus the increasing utilization of prognostic tests of aptitude and intelligence for the selection of personnel, may be considered as primary contributors to the existence of a sound personnel policy in the Brazilian civil service.

The Wartime Salary Problem

ISMAR BARUCH

IN PUBLIC JURISDICTIONS pay policies and rates for salaried governmental employees are based on formal actions or decisions of legislative and executive bodies. These actions or decisions take into consideration a variety of economic, administrative, and fiscal factors. Among these factors are: cost of living, as represented in family budget studies; time changes in the cost-of-living index; comparisons between pay levels in private industry and in the public service; relative benefits afforded by public and private employment, other than those expressed in salaries or wages; present rates of pay in the jurisdiction and their pay-roll cost; recency and amount of previous pay adjustments; immediate and ultimate cost or savings resulting from proposed adjustments of pay levels; and the financial condition of the jurisdiction.

These factors are not fixed or permanent in character. Material fluctuations in the cost of living and in wage and salary levels in private employment, the ease or difficulty of securing and retaining employees with the qualifications that government demands, changes in local tax programs and financial resources, and other considerations call for review and adjustment of pay policies and rates from time to time.

PUBLIC PAY AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

PAY ADJUSTMENTS MADE during the economic depression some years ago illustrate the close relationship of public pay to external economic and employment conditions and to internal matters of taxation and financial resources. These factors at that time gave rise to a strong demand in many jurisdictions to freeze

or lower government salaries. Formal restrictions against pay advances, and the ordering of cuts in pay were common.¹ Sometimes, when formal pay cuts were not legislated, employees on request waived their legal right to receive a certain percentage of their pay.

Now again the stress of change in economic and employment conditions commands the attention of legislators and executives responsible for pay administration in public jurisdictions. As is usual in wartime, living costs have rapidly increased, depressing the purchasing power of the government employee's salary. In August, 1939, the national cost-of-living index (1935-'39=100) for families of manual and other lower-salaried workers in large cities was 98.6. In January, 1941, it was 100.8, and in October, 1943, 124.4. Thus, in October, 1943, the cost of living had increased 23.4 per cent since January, 1941, and 26.2 per cent since August, 1939. Among the items making up the cost-of-living budget, the cost of food, for which the average family covered by the index spends one-third or more of its income, showed the largest increase in October, 1943, advancing 41.3 per cent since January, 1941, and 47.8 per cent since August, 1939.²

ANOTHER FACTOR UNDERLYING the wartime pay problem is that the manpower requirements of the armed forces and the attraction of war production industries have drawn from the public service experienced and qualified employees. To some extent public jurisdic-

¹ See G. Lyle Belsley, "Pay Policies and Pay Adjustments in Times of Economic Stress," *Summary of Proceedings, Fourth Eastern Regional Conference of Civil Service Assembly*, May, 1932, pp. 40-53; R. M. Gallagher, "Public Personnel Policies During the Depression," *Summary of Proceedings, Twenty-Fifth Annual Meeting of Civil Service Assembly*, September, 1932, pp. 76-83.

² U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Monthly Labor Review*, December, 1943, pp. 1226-27. The Bureau's index covers changes in the cost of food; clothing; rent; fuel, electricity, and ice; house furnishings; and miscellaneous items.

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tions have participated in employment stabilization agreements under the regulations of the War Manpower Commission. Employers who are parties to such agreements are protected from the usual disturbances caused by uncontrolled pirating of workers and shopping for jobs.³ In general, however, public jurisdictions are seldom in a practical position to hold many of their personnel whose services are required by local war industries, and clearly there is no such thing as competition for manpower with the armed forces.

Coupled with these conditions are others which emphasize that public jurisdictions and private industry alike are trying to recruit and hire the same kinds of employees in the same restricted labor market. Employment and pay competition, fairly loose in normal times, naturally tightens as the total manpower available for civilian work is reduced by peak employment in war production and by prior demands of the military services. Pay increases in war production plants and the opportunities to shift from white-collar public service occupations to better-paid industrial jobs have in general intensified the competitive pay advantage that private industry usually has over the public service, especially in the middle and higher salary brackets.

The result of this interplay of forces is that many public jurisdictions, as well as private employers, are faced with a complex situation: demands to increase salaries to meet rising living costs, serious turnover in their present staffs, large-scale labor shortages in areas from which new employees are customarily drawn, and unusual difficulty in securing replacements with suitable qualifications.

SALARY STABILIZATION AND PUBLIC PAY

IT IS EXPECTED THAT wartime pay adjustments made by public jurisdictions will conform with national salary and wage stabilization policies. Most of these have been reviewed in a previous article.⁴ The latest general order of

³ See Charles A. Meyer, "Employment Stabilization in the Detroit City Service," *Public Personnel Review*, July, 1943, pp. 165-67; Winifred S. Wilcox, "West Coast Manpower Program," *Manpower Review*, November, 1943, pp. 3-5, 24; Jeremiah J. Donovan, "Wartime Personnel Practices in Cities," *Public Management*, November, 1943, pp. 327-28.

⁴ Ismar Baruch, "Some Aspects of Pay Stabilization," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1943, pp. 73-78.

the National War Labor Board on the subject,⁵ adopted May 25, 1943, incorporates a joint statement of the Board and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, expressing confidence that "public employers will continue to cooperate as they have in the past and will not make adjustments in wages or salaries which would be in contravention of the national stabilization policy." The Order then continues:

Adjustments will continue to be deemed approved without the necessity of filing certificates for the information of the Board or the Commissioner, and adjustments will neither be approved nor disapproved by the National War Labor Board or the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.

This means that officials of state, county, municipal, and other non-federal governmental divisions may continue to make wage or salary adjustments for their respective employees under the revised wage stabilization program, without seeking approval of the National War Labor Board or the Commissioner of Internal Revenue.

The Washington offices of the National War Labor Board, the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, and the Joint Committee on Salaries and Wages, as well as the Regional War Labor Boards and the field offices of the Bureau of Internal Revenue, will continue to advise local governments, when requested, as to national stabilization policies. They will not, however, exercise pre-audit or post-audit controls over salary or wage adjustments in public jurisdictions.

Conformance with national salary and wage stabilization policy is not a serious problem in public jurisdictions. Apart from the absence of any federal legal sanctions, local budgetary and statutory controls inherent in public expenditures keep within narrow limits the range of upward pay adjustments in public salaries and wages. There is little likelihood, even in wartime, that public pay levels will rise to an extent that is inconsistent with the national salary and wage stabilization program.

GOVERNMENTAL PAY-SETTING PRACTICES

THE RELATIVE STABILITY of governmental pay levels grows out of several conditioning in-

⁵ General Order No. 12-B, *Federal Register*, June 1, 1943. This order revokes General Order No. 12-A, January 6, 1943.

fluences. Fixed maximums, the ever-present taxpayer influence, the infrequent opening of pay questions, and the formalistic methods of public pay-setting—these all tend to make increases in public salary levels infrequent in occurrence and moderate in amount. Methods of determining salary levels and policies in public jurisdictions fall into four general groups:⁶

1. The legislative body—such as the board of selectmen, board of trustees, board of supervisors, board of education, or the like—fixes the pay of each employee and officer and has full and immediate control over all matters such as pay increases, method of payment, and hours of work. This method of operation is characteristic of the very small unit of government, such as rural school districts, townships, smaller counties, villages, and special districts. It has, in some cases, been carried over into the administration of the affairs of larger units of government, such as smaller cities.

2. The legislative body, such as the common council, board of supervisors, or the board of aldermen, fixes the pay of officers, major employees such as department and division heads, and such other employees as may come to its special attention, but leaves the determination of other salaries and wage rates to the chief executive, if there is one, or to the heads of departments and divisions, who are frequently elected. This method of operation is probably characteristic of the smaller city, the average county, and those larger cities and states which do not operate under a merit system and a pay plan based upon a position-classification plan.

3. The legislative body adopts a pay plan, based upon a classification of positions according to duties, prescribing for each class of positions a pay range consisting of a minimum and a maximum salary and intermediate rates, and such rules as are necessary for the administration of the pay plan. This method of operation is characteristic of most large cities and states operating under a merit system.

4. The legislative body authorizes an executive agency of the jurisdiction to prepare a pay plan, similar to that described under (3) above, which is then adopted, amended, and administered by a central personnel agency in cooperation with the executive budgetary authority. This is characteristic of some of the states operating under a merit system.

Thus, traditionally, salaries of government employees are closely controlled. In most instances they are established in statutes or ordinances enacted by a legislative body.⁷ The usual occasions for considering their revision are limited to the period in which the annual or biennial budget is formulated. Frequently, the feasibility of paying increased rates or the necessity of paying decreased rates is directly

linked with consideration of tax policies by the same state assembly, city council, or county board of supervisors.⁸ In those relatively few instances where executive authority may revise pay scales, the deciding officials, like legislators in this respect, are properly concerned with the taxpayer's financial interests as well as with the effectiveness of public services.

Frequently, also, fixed salaries for certain officials such as mayors, governors, or department heads serve as effective ceilings over pay levels in the jurisdiction. Occasionally, such ceilings cannot be raised by legislative action. For example, on November 2, 1943, the voters of Kentucky defeated a proposal to amend a \$5,000 constitutional limitation on the salary of any state or local official. This limitation has been in effect since 1891.

Collectively, these factors exercise a substantial stabilizing influence against wartime pressures for upward adjustment of pay levels. It may be noted that these influences operate both to check the rapidity of advance and the amount of increase. That they do not, however, form a barrier to moderate upward adjustments is readily apparent.

THE EXTENT OF PAY ADJUSTMENTS

SAMPLING STUDIES INDICATE that in some parts of the public service, salary adjustments were prevalent in 1941. For example, out of 384 cities reporting to the Municipal Finance Officers Association, 247 took some pay increase action during 1941. General increases were made in 133 cities; pay adjustments for special groups in 87; and miscellaneous and minor adjustments in 22. In five cities existing depression pay cuts were eliminated in 1941.⁹

⁶ A news note about the pay plan adopted by Flint, Michigan, effective July 1, 1943, states: "The governing principle of the new plan is the city's ability to pay. The usual practice of conducting a wage survey was discarded as a basis for revising pay rates because it was known in advance that the tax limit would prevent the city from competing with prevailing high wages in industry. The city therefore first determined how much it could spend for wages and then adjusted the ranges until the overall costs were consistent with financial limitations." *Public Management*, December, 1943, p. 357. A description of a similar but less recent legislative situation is given by E. E. Bullard in "Classification of Positions, Pay Revisions, and Service Ratings as Used in Oakland, California," *Western City*, April, 1932.

⁷ Carl H. Chatters and Margorie Leonard, *Salary and Wage Increases in 384 United States Cities During 1941* (Chicago: Municipal Finance Officers Association, Special Bulletin, December, 1941). See also Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, August, 1942, pp. 5-8.

⁸ James M. Mitchell, Director, Headquarters Office, Civil Service Assembly, in letter of October 28, 1942, to National War Labor Board.

⁹ For a discussion of responsibilities of legislative bodies for salary and budget matters, see Merrill J. Collett, "The Presentation of Wage Proposals for Legislative Review," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1942, pp. 272-79.

During 1941, of 957 cities over 10,000 in population reporting personnel data to the International City Managers Association, 629 (about two-thirds) gave increases to some or all of their employees. Of this number, 227, or 36.1 per cent of those authorizing pay increases, made those increases applicable to all or nearly all of their employees.¹⁰

In a Civil Service Assembly survey of wartime personnel practices in July, 1943, 86 per cent of the 133 agencies responding to the question reported that they had adopted general pay increases since Pearl Harbor. Several had plans for such increases currently under consideration.¹¹

SALARIED PUBLIC SERVANTS, in fact, typically belong to the fixed-money income group in the lower and middle brackets whose purchasing power and ability to share equitably in a shrinking wartime supply of consumer goods suffer most in periods of rising prices. This familiar fact is further demonstrated in Table II. As shown in this table, the monthly earnings of state and local government employees in October, 1943, averaged \$125, ranging from \$116 in counties to \$135 and \$138 in municipalities and states, respectively. Average earnings of municipal employees varied according to the size of the city. For example, the average for cities over 100,000 population was \$172 a

TABLE I. INDEXES OF AVERAGE MONTHLY EARNINGS^a
January, 1941=100

Type of Government	October 1943	April 1943	April 1942	April 1941	January 1941	April 1940
Total non-school state and local.....	117	107	100	98	100	94
States	121	111	100	99	100	98
Cities, towns, and villages..	116	106	101	99	100	94
Counties	113	108	99	100	100	95

^a U. S. Bureau of the Census, *State and Local Government Quarterly Employment Survey*, Vol. 4, No. 10, November, 1943, p. 4; estimated data for October, 1943, computed from preliminary employment and payroll figures in Vol. 4, No. 15, December, 1943. Final figures will be available in Vol. 4, No. 19.

TABLE II. AVERAGE MONTHLY EARNINGS PER EMPLOYEE^a

Type of Government	October 1943	April 1943	April 1942	April 1941	January 1941	April 1940
Total non-school state and local.....	\$125	\$115	\$108	\$105	\$107	\$100
States	138	127	113	113	114	112
Cities, towns, and villages..	135	124	118	115	116	109
Counties	116	111	102	103	103	98

^a U. S. Bureau of the Census, *loc. cit.*

On an overall basis, however, the earnings of public employees, as indicated in Table I, have risen rather slowly. This table shows that in the 33-month period between January, 1941, and October, 1943, average earnings of non-school public employees increased 21 per cent in states, 16 per cent in cities, towns, and villages, and 13 per cent in counties. During the same 33-month period, the national cost-of-living index rose from 100.8 to 124.4, an increase of 23.4 per cent.¹²

¹⁰ *The Municipal Year Book*, 1942, p. 230, Table 2.

¹¹ Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, September, 1943, pp. 69-72.

¹² U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Monthly Labor Review*, December, 1943, pp. 1226-27.

month as contrasted with \$149 in cities between 25,000 and 100,000, and \$124 in cities between 10,000 and 25,000.¹³ In counties above and below 50,000 population the averages were \$136 and \$92, respectively.

It should be borne in mind that average earnings are not average salary rates. Earnings reflect both rates and number of working hours. In the larger jurisdictions there is generally a greater proportion of full-time workers, and average earnings therefore would be

¹³ In May, 1943, the city of Detroit paid a higher median salary than any one of twelve other cities with population over 500,000. In Detroit the figure was \$3,319 a year; in the other 12 cities combined, \$2,200. Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, October, 1943, p. 82.

closer to average rates than in the smaller jurisdictions.¹⁴

In a wartime economy the status of white-collar workers in government is not materially different from that of the white-collar worker in banks, insurance companies, wholesale and retail trade, and other commercial offices. Although their salary levels have advanced, none of these groups has received pay increases as fast as or to the same extent as workers in industrial manufacturing operations. For example, between January, 1941, and July, 1943, average money earnings of workers in manufacturing industries increased from \$26.64 to \$42.76 per week (an increase of 61 per cent) and from 68.3 cents to 96.3 cents per hour (an increase of 41 per cent). Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings increased from 66.4 cents to 90.4 cents (an increase of 36 per cent).¹⁵

Although comprehensive data for white-collar workers are not available, sample surveys and discussions bear out the conclusion that in general, even in private establishments, those in the lower brackets are bearing the financial impact of war rather heavily compared with other classes. Such evidence as there is points to this conclusion.¹⁶

¹⁴ For example, in April, 1943, in cities over 25,000, from 86 to 91 per cent of employees were full-time; in cities between 10,000 and 25,000, 73 per cent; in the smaller towns and villages, from 11 per cent to 59 per cent. In states the portion was 83 per cent. U. S. Bureau of the Census, *State and Local Government Quarterly Employment Survey*, Vol. 4, No. 10, November, 1943.

¹⁵ U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Trends in Factory Wages, 1939-43," *Monthly Labor Review*, November, 1943, pp. 869-884.

¹⁶ "What's Happening to White-Collar Pay," *The Wall Street Journal*, October 6, 1941, pp. 1-2 (reproduced in *The Management Review*, November, 1941, pp. 399-401); "What's Happening to White Collar Salaries," *American Business*, September, 1941, pp. 15-16, 46; William G. Storie, "War and the White-Collar Worker," *Personnel*, January, 1942, p. 211; "Salary Trends for Office Work since 1940," *American Business*, September, 1942, pp. 7-9, 26; "Clerical Salary Rates Paid in January, April, July, and October, 1943," National Industrial Conference Board *Management Record*, March, 1943, pp. 98-101; *Studies in Personnel Policy*, No. 57, National Industrial Conference Board (April, 1943); *Management Record*, October, 1943, p. 408-411; *ibid.*, January, 1944, p. 7; Wayne L. Morse, National War Labor Board, Address before National Wartime Conference, New York, May, 1943; Lewis Merrill, *A Salary Policy to Win the War*, United Office and Professional Workers of America, Congress of Industrial Organizations, September, 1943; National Education Association, "Teachers' Salaries and the Public Welfare," *Research Bulletin*, December, 1943; U. S. Senators Elbert D. Thomas, Chairman of Committee on Education and Labor, and Claude Pepper, Chairman of Subcommittee on Wartime Health and Education, *Joint Statement*, January 31, 1944.

PAY ADJUSTMENT METHODS

A REVIEW OF AVAILABLE DATA indicates that the methods used in making wartime pay adjustments are of wide variety. Out of 227 cities reporting to the International City Managers' Association concerning pay increases authorized in 1941, more than half (119 cities) reported that no general formula had been used as a basis for the increases. In 91 cities, a general formula was adopted. These were: uniform percentage of base salary (66 cities); uniform dollar amount (15 cities); and a schedule or sliding scale of two or more percentages or dollar amounts, providing the larger percentage increases to workers in the lower salary brackets (10 cities). In 11 cities the increases either followed the steps in existing pay scales or resulted from an over-all revision of an existing pay plan.¹⁷

An examination of the questionnaire reports on wartime personnel practices by the Civil Service Assembly in July, 1943,¹⁸ shows that wartime pay adjustments then in effect were based on nine types of methods or formulas:

a. Flat dollar amount; e.g., \$200 added to all salaries up to and including \$3,000 a year.

b. Schedule of two or three lump-sum amounts, each keyed to definite salary brackets; e.g., \$180 added to all salaries through \$1,620; \$120 to salaries from \$1,621 through \$1,800; \$60 to all salaries over \$1,800.

c. More continuously graduated schedules keying basic salaries and dollar-amount increases; e.g., a schedule beginning with an increase of \$240 in all basic salaries of \$1,200 or less, and diminishing this increase by \$10 for each \$299 interval in basic salaries up to \$3,899, the last interval (\$3,600 to \$3,899) being increased by \$150.

d. Schedule of two or three percentage increases keyed to definite salary brackets; e.g., 10 per cent added to all salaries of \$145 a month and below; 7½ per cent to all salaries from \$145 to and including \$165 a month; 5 per cent to all salaries above \$165.

e. A combination of two of these types of formulas; e.g., \$20 a month and, in addition, 8½ per cent of basic salary in semi-annual payments to employees remaining in the service continuously for six months preceding such payments.

f. Flat percentage increase; e.g., 15 per cent added to all salaries up to and including \$3,000.

g. Periodic increase on the basis of change in cost-of-living index; e.g., for each 1 per cent increase in the cost-of-living index salaries of \$150 a month and below are increased \$1.20; those over \$150 through \$200 are increased \$1.05; those over \$200 through \$250 are increased \$0.90; and those over \$250 are increased \$0.75.

h. Increases to higher steps within established range

¹⁷ *The Municipal Year Book*, 1942, p. 231, Table 3.

¹⁸ For a report of this survey, see Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, September, 1943, pp. 69-72.

of pay for each class of positions; e.g., a one-fifth increment within the existing pay scale.

i. Revision of pay scales of existing pay plan through purposeful and systematic review, frequently including current outside wage survey.

Types (a) to (e) are sliding scale formulas, i.e., the percentage relationship of the increase to basic salary varies, becoming smaller in the middle and upper brackets. This is the most popular method of adjustment, adopted in about half of the reporting jurisdictions. Flat percentage increases were in effect in 22 jurisdictions. Periodic cost-of-living adjustment plans were reported by 15 governments. In 17 cases wartime pay adjustments followed the completion of a systematic review of the pay scales then in effect.¹⁹

LIMITATIONS WERE COMMONLY INCLUDED in the adjustment formulas. This was done either by stating the maximum dollar amount that would be paid under a percentage formula, or by establishing a basic salary ceiling over which the general increase formula would not apply. For example, the city of Detroit authorized a wartime increase of 15 per cent, but not to exceed \$450 a year. The state of Massachusetts provided by law for a 15 per cent increase, but not less than \$240 nor more than \$360 a year in any case.²⁰ Jacksonville paid a 20 per cent increase to all employees receiving salaries of \$250 a month or less. In New York State, wartime increases of 10 per cent up to \$2000 and 7½ per cent up to \$4000 were not permitted to raise aggregate pay above \$4000. Minnesota authorized a wartime pay increase of \$5 a month plus 5 per cent of the monthly pay rate, but not to exceed a total increase of \$15 a month.

The general effect of such limitations was to give a smaller proportionate increase to employees in the middle and higher brackets, on

the theory that such employees could best afford to absorb the loss in purchasing power due to increased living costs. It is interesting to observe that during the depression the burden of salary cuts frequently fell heavier on the same group.²¹

In many instances it was plain that the pay increases were identified as temporary, wartime adjustments and were not merged legally into regular or basic salaries. The assumption underlying the "wartime bonus" label is that such identification will make it easier after the war to lower aggregate pay to the pre-war level or to modify wartime pay levels as warranted by post-war conditions.²²

It may well be doubted, however, whether future employee dissatisfaction, when wartime increases are diminished or eliminated, can now be effectively guarded against by labels, separate checks, or any other device. Obviously, the tendency to regard pay adjustments as a regular part of compensation is much stronger when they are increases than when they are decreases. Depression-time pay decreases were accepted as emergency measures, with the understanding that there would be an early return to old levels. To expect the same of wartime pay increases is to ignore natural hopes and human motives.

EXAMPLES OF PAY ADJUSTMENT PLANS

THE GENERAL PICTURE of the degree and method of wartime pay adjustment should now be clear. Because a few jurisdictions have adopted pay adjustment plans having features of special interest, these plans are here summarized.

Milwaukee Metropolitan Area.—A periodic cost-of-living adjustment plan covering 13,000 employees was adopted by cooperative, uniform action of the five independent local gov-

¹⁹ See also discussions and illustrations of wartime pay adjustment methods in: Norman N. Gill, *Report on Salary and Wage Trends in Various Cities* (mimeographed), October 15, 1941; "Salary Increases for Municipal Employees," *Public Management*, November, 1941, pp. 323-28; Jeremiah J. Donovan, "Pay Adjustments for City Employees," *Public Management*, January, 1942, pp. 8-12; Robert I. Biren, "Adjusting Employee Salaries in Wartime," *Public Management*, January, 1943, pp. 2-4; Ovid B. Blix, "The Compensation of Public Employees," *The Municipality*, January, 1943, pp. 7, 8, 13. For an outline of recent salary adjustments in the Dominion of Canada, see "Canada Grants Salary Increases to Civil Servants," *Civil Service Assembly News Letter*, December, 1943, p. 94.

²⁰ Act approved April 13, 1943, Chap. 170.

²¹ For example, during most of 1933 and 1934 Cincinnati salaries were reduced according to a graduated schedule calling for a 5 per cent cut of salaries of \$1,000 or less, up to a 20 per cent cut of salaries of over \$5,000. Other cities had similar schedules.

²² Note the following suggestion for industrial concerns: "See that any extra compensation in the form of overtime, cost-of-living bonus, or profit-sharing is paid by separate payroll checks; and emphasize continually to employees the temporary nature of this additional compensation." Harold B. Bergen, "Trends in Adjustments in Salaries," *Personnel*, November, 1941, p. 120. See also Robert I. Biren, "Adjusting Employee Salaries in Wartime," *Public Management*, January, 1943, pp. 2-4.

ernments in the area. Annually, on January 1, increases or decreases of basic salaries are made according to the cost-of-living index for Milwaukee on the previous June 15, as issued by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. The amount of adjustment is determined by multiplying the per cent of change in the index (1935-'39 = 100) by \$1,620 (adopted as necessary minimum family budget during base period 1935-'39). All employees receive this amount. The first adjustment was made on August 1, 1943, for all employees except school teachers and amounted to \$367.74 per annum ($22.7\% \times \$1,620$). No pay adjustment is made unless the index changes by more than one per cent. The extent of index change to be used in any future year is limited to 10 per cent. Steps for developing joint position-classification and basic pay plans are under way.²³

Whitefish Bay, Wisconsin. Effective November 1, 1941, the village of Whitefish Bay adopted a periodic cost-of-living adjustment plan to compensate employees partially for increased living costs. By a separate bonus check each employee is paid monthly an additional one dollar or fraction thereof for each point or fraction thereof that the current monthly National Industrial Conference Board index for Milwaukee exceeds the April, 1941, index of 101.9. For example, in July, 1942, the index stood at 113.5, or 11.6 points higher. In that month the cost-of-living bonus was \$11.60. The amount has varied from \$6.30 in November, 1941, to \$20.20 in December, 1943. This plan will remain in force only so long as the governing board deems it to be in the interests of good administration.²⁴

Akron, Ohio. The scales of pay of the Akron standard pay plan (arranged in services, grades, and salary ranges), have been amended by raising each rate by one salary step or increment. Standard increments are \$60 (in the lower brackets), \$120, and \$180. The effect is to adopt the second rate of each grade as the new minimum and to add an extra step beyond

the previously existing maximum.²⁵

State of Minnesota. The Minnesota plan is of the continuously graduated type. The increase formula is \$5 a month plus 5 per cent of monthly basic salary. This results in a graduated percentage scale decreasing from lower to higher brackets, as shown hereafter.

Basic Salary	Total Increase	
	Amount	Per Cent
\$ 80	\$ 9.00	11.25
100	10.00	10.00
150	12.50	8.33
200	15.00	7.50

Alameda County, California. In addition to an increase of \$20 a month, $8\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of basic salary is paid in semi-annual payments to employees who have remained on the payroll continuously for the preceding six months.²⁶

EXTRA EARNINGS FOR OVERTIME

A WARTIME LENGTHENING of work schedules to compensate for manpower shortages and to afford opportunity for increased earnings has not been as widespread a practice as might be expected. Office personnel of 830 city governments in January, 1943, were for the most part already subject to a workweek of 38 or more hours. In 32.9 per cent of the cities the workweek was 38 to $41\frac{3}{4}$ hours, in 40.1 per cent it was 42 to $45\frac{3}{4}$ hours, while in 21.4 per cent of the cities reporting, the workweek was 46 or more hours. In only 22 cities was the length of the workweek changed during 1942. Ten cities increased and 12 decreased the number of working hours.²⁷

In the Civil Service Assembly's July, 1943, survey of wartime personnel practices, 147 jurisdictions furnished information on lengthening of working hours. Of these, 56, or 38 per cent, had lengthened the workday or workweek. Nine other jurisdictions had such plans under consideration. In the majority of instances the change was being made purely as a wartime measure. Eighty-two jurisdictions, or

²³ Ordinance No. 186-1943, approved June 11, 1943.

²⁴ Other examples of pay adjustment plans have been reported in the Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*. See, for example, "Connecticut and Delaware Grant Pay Increases," March, 1943, p. 20; "Three States Authorize Employee Pay Increases," May, 1943, p. 34; "Flint Adopts New Uniform Pay Plan Based on City's Ability to Pay," November, 1943, p. 85.

²⁷ *The Municipal Year Book, 1943*, pp. 203-04; "Trends in Municipal Personnel Problems," *Public Management*, April, 1943, p. 101.

²⁵ An excellent presentation of this plan will be found in Ovid B. Blix and Norman N. Gill, "Milwaukee Local Governments Join in Salary Adjustment Plan," *National Municipal Review*, October, 1943, pp. 482-85.

²⁶ For a discussion and description of this plan, see Ralph H. Cahill, "The Whitefish Bay Cost-of-Living Bonus Plan," *The Municipality*, October, 1942, pp. 163-164.

56 per cent, had not lengthened their work schedules and did not plan to do so.

In January, 1943, of 938 cities over 10,000 population reporting data to the International City Managers Association, 236 or one-fourth, were providing for overtime pay or compensatory time off for extra-hour service rendered by salaried or wage employees, or both. Of 194 cities compensating *salaried* employees for overtime work, 77 or two-fifths, did so by money payments. By way of contrast, out of 112 cities compensating *wage employees* for overtime work, 76, or two-thirds, did so by money payments. The reports thus indicated that it was more customary to grant hourly or weekly employees overtime pay rather than compensatory time off, while in the case of salaried employees the converse practice was more frequent.²⁸

IN ORDER TO MEET the manpower requirements of the armed forces and the expanding war production program, on February 9, 1943, the President promulgated an Executive Order (No. 9301) establishing nationally a 48-hour workweek. This order states in part that "for the duration of the war, no plant, factory, or other place of employment shall be deemed to be making the most effective utilization of its manpower if the minimum workweek therein is less than 48 hours per week." Under this policy, the War Manpower Commission made a minimum 48-hour workweek mandatory in designated labor-shortage areas. Although state and local governments were expressly excluded from any federal control in this respect, some cities have voluntarily adopted the same policy.

Effective March 22, 1943, Detroit city employees went on a 48-hour workweek basis, with time and one-half rates for work in excess of the regular 40-hour basic week. Five other cities in labor shortage areas were moving toward a 48-hour week, but 11 cities in areas where war industry was on a lengthened workweek did not, at last report, contemplate taking similar action.²⁹

²⁸ *The Municipal Year Book, 1943*, pp. 208-209; see also *Public Management*, April, 1943, pp. 101-02.

²⁹ "Effect of the 48-hour Week on Municipal Employment," *Public Management*, March, 1943, pp. 80-81. See also Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, February, 1943, p. 11; *ibid.*, May, 1943, p. 36.

Effective September 1, 1943, the California State Personnel Board established normal workweeks of 40, 44, and 48 hours, applicable to specified groups of employees. A 1943 state statute provides that for work in excess of the normal workweek either compensatory time off or money payment at straight rates, computed on not to exceed \$250 of an employee's monthly salary, shall be granted.³⁰

In adopting a uniform pay plan recently the city of Flint, Michigan, provided for overtime pay at time and one-half rates for work in excess of a 44-hour workweek. This rate did not apply to supervisory personnel, some of whom were to be paid straight rates for overtime, and others according to special pay scales. The highest six of the sixteen occupational levels in the position-classification plan were excluded from any overtime provision. The schedule of wage rates approved in the ordinance shows, for each of the first nine occupational levels, separate five-rate pay ranges corresponding to a 40-hour, 41-hour, 44-hour, and 48-hour workweek, respectively.³¹

IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT, where time and one-half rates for overtime work performed by crafts, trades, and labor groups was customary, overtime pay for clerical, professional, and other salaried groups, generally, was first authorized in a series of statutes enacted between June 28, 1940, and May 7, 1943. The War Overtime Pay Act of May 7, 1943, covers the salaried groups of the federal service generally, but with some exceptions (such as the postal service) for which special legislation authorizing a wartime pay increase was enacted.³² It is based on the President's policy of a standard 48-hour week for the federal service.³³ Employees working regularly 48 hours a week (an increase of 20 per cent or more in hours worked) are paid additional compensation according to a formula which results in a 21.67 per cent increase on salaries of \$2900 or less.

³⁰ Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, September, 1943, p. 73. Cf. "San Francisco Enacts Five-Day Week Ordinance," Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, December, 1943, p. 96.

³¹ Ordinance No. 542, adopted by the City Commission, October 4, 1943; effective date, July 1, 1943.

³² Public Law No. 25, 57 Stat. 59, April 9, 1943, grants a pay increase of \$300 a year to some postal groups and 15 per cent to others.

³³ Memorandum of the President to all departments and agencies of the federal government, December 22, 1942.

Employees in the lower brackets whose overtime pay, as computed by the regular formula, is less than \$300 a year, are given additional overtime pay up to that amount or 25 per cent of base salary, whichever is less. Employees in the higher brackets receive overtime compensation computed on \$2900 only. For work in excess of 48 hours a week either overtime pay or compensatory time off may be granted. This law also provides for a wartime increase of either \$300 a year or 15 per cent of not to exceed \$2900 of basic salary, in the case of employees who are not on regular, full-time work schedules.

LIMITED ROLE OF WARTIME PAY ADJUSTMENTS

WARTIME CONDITIONS do not make any less important the continued maintenance of police, fire, and health protection, educational and recreational activities, utilities, and other public services essential to community welfare. On the contrary, in many areas the responsibilities of local government officials have been enlarged and complicated by the necessity of serving war production plants and workers or military installations and the armed forces.³⁴

When faced with employment conditions threatening to curtail or disrupt these essential services, the responsible officials naturally explore ways and means for meeting war conditions squarely and at the same time recruiting and retaining adequate staffs for essential activities. Because of the emphasis customarily placed on the magical power of money, there is perhaps a danger that pay increase measures may be regarded as sole and complete solutions of wartime difficulties.

In denying approval of a proposed "attendance bonus," the National War Labor Board expressed itself as follows:³⁵

The National War Labor Board believes that the causes of absenteeism are so complex and varied as to require many specific preventive actions. It is specious reasoning to say that 'more wages' is all that is necessary to solve this complex problem. . . .

If the approach to absenteeism is simply the payment of an attendance bonus without going to the fundamental causes of absenteeism, the result is sure to be

somewhat higher wages without any real solution of the problem of absenteeism. . . .

There is a tendency in some quarters to assume that every industrial relations problem can be solved by wage increases. The wage level is undoubtedly of primary importance to workers, but "man does not work for bread alone." There are also very powerful non-financial incentives.

Studies of employee attitudes and of causes of absenteeism and turnover make it amply clear that inadequate pay rates constitute only one of a large number of causes of worker dissatisfaction, absenteeism, or quitting the job.³⁶

This popular fallacy that "more money" is the dominant determinant of improved morale has been disproved by careful studies of employee attitudes, which have shown conclusively that the causes of poor morale are psychological rather than economic. For example, a study of the attitudes of workers in one large manufacturing company showed that feelings about the wages received—as compared with those paid for similar work in other companies—were relatively unimportant determinants of general morale; but specific items of supervision were highly important.

Proper perspective emphasizes that raising pay levels is only one thing to consider in devising a program to do something about manpower shortages, recruiting difficulties, and high turnover rate. Other important parts of such a program deal with (a) operations of the central personnel agency itself, and (b) management, supervision, and utilization of personnel in line agencies. Certainly, when the taxpayer is asked to foot the bill, he is reasonable when he insists that if the central recruiting agency is to be aided by increased wartime hiring rates, it shall operate effectively, ingeniously, and realistically. He is also reasonable, and somewhat penetrating, when he demands that top management in the jurisdiction, if it desires increased rates to retain employees already on the rolls, make sure that it is successful in wartime management and by all means makes the best possible use of such employees.

³⁶ Harold B. Bergen, "Measuring Wartime Attitudes and Morale," *Personnel Journal*, May, 1942, pp. 2-9. See also Herbert Moore, "Employee Attitude Surveys," *Personnel Journal*, April, 1941, pp. 360-63; *ibid.*, "Why Are Employees Often Dissatisfied," *American Business*, August, 1941, pp. 22, 23, 42, 43; Ross Stagner, J. N. Rich, and R. H. Britten, Jr., "Job Attitudes: Defense Workers," *Personnel Journal*, September, 1941, pp. 90-97; Gerald Brown, "Job Attitudes: Store Employees," *Personnel Journal*, September 1941, pp. 98-104; Charles N. Cofer and Eleanor B. Cohen, "Job Attitudes of 101 Federal Employees," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1943, pp. 96-102; Arthur Kolstad, "Attitudes of Employees and Their Supervisors," *Personnel*, January, 1944, pp. 241-250; Joseph H. Jackson, "Factors Involved in Absenteeism," *Personnel Journal*, February, 1944, pp. 289-95.

³⁴ This tendency was evident in pre-Pearl Harbor days. For illustrations, see "Effect of National Defense on Cities," *Public Management*, October, 1941, pp. 291-297.

³⁵ *In the Matter of Statesville Cotton Mills Company*, Case No. 4-3312, September 7, 1943.

With respect to the activities of the central personnel agency itself, it is not too much to expect considerable revision of its normal recruiting and testing practices.⁸⁷ A forward-looking plan for wartime personnel administration also recognizes that good management and productive supervision in the line agencies of the jurisdiction are critically essential in order to utilize most effectively the abilities and skills of employees.

UNDER PERSONNEL UTILIZATION PROGRAMS designed for this purpose, and supported by the highest executive authority within the jurisdiction, the head of each agency sees that a survey is carried out to reveal the facts on whether all employees are effectively placed and working full time at their highest skills. He makes frank inquiry to find out what is being done in his department with respect to many specific phases of management and supervision. For example, he may ask about the selection and training of supervisors; use of written position-descriptions as management and supervisory tools; proper organization of work; effectiveness of supervisors and administrators in delegating to others the authority and responsibility to act; operation of transfer or reassignment programs based on inventories of job requirements and the abilities and skills of present workers; availability of training facilities for maximum use of employees' qualifications; waste of personnel through absenteeism and turnover; presence or absence of a progressive employee relations program; and maintenance of good working, safety, and health conditions.

After the facts have been secured on these and other points, and with the leadership and cooperation of the central personnel agency, vigorous steps are taken to improve practices, correct weaknesses, and supply omissions.⁸⁸

⁸⁷ For details on such wartime personnel practices, see James M. Mitchell, "Overcoming Wartime Personnel Shortages," *Public Management*, August, 1942, pp. 232-33; Civil Service Assembly News Letters, August, 1942, pp. 5-8; February, 1943, p. 9; September, 1943, pp. 69-72.

⁸⁸ U. S. Civil Service Commission, *Better Use of Personnel* (An Outline and Check List for Evaluating Federal Agency Employee Utilization Programs), January, 1944. See also American Management Association, *Methods for Solving Manpower Problems*, Personnel Series, No. 71 (1943), pp. 8-10, 14-18; Princeton University Industrial Relations Section, *Maximum Utilization of Employed Manpower*, 1943; Edward H. Litchfield, "Organization Analysis Surveys in a Personnel Agency Program," *Public Personnel Review*,

Clearly, pay adjustment measures by themselves lack the positiveness and directness of an employee utilization program such as this.

It should be constantly recognized that any type of incentive to do good work—financial or otherwise—makes for efficiency and stability. In the absence of suitable incentives, it is natural to expect difficulty in attracting qualified applicants for employment, as well as a high rate of resignation among those already employed. This applies particularly to those whose very competence permits them easily to obtain employment elsewhere.

SOME INCENTIVES are not essentially financial in character. Pride in rendering public service in wartime; satisfactions secured from the work itself and from the employee's knowledge that he, in performing his own job, is making a definite contribution to the organization; the daily experience of working under a fair-minded and competent supervisor; regularity of employment; intelligent placement providing expression for the employee's knowledge, capacity, and interests; adequate training and clear instruction for immediate tasks; opportunities to grow toward promotion or reassignment to positions in which the employee will experience a sense of greater accomplishment; good working conditions with respect to physical environment; fairness and equity in administering pay matters, whatever the level of pay may be—all these are valuable incentives, the expansion and development of which are well worth while.

Pay increase measures are not substitutes for ingenuity in finding ways to hire, place, train, and use to the best advantage the kinds of applicants who are available. In a restricted labor market, it is necessary to recognize that employees will have to be hired who will lack the skills or abilities possessed by recruits that can be brought into the public service in less urgent times. This means arranging work to fit the qualifications of persons who can be secured, training them intensively in the tasks of the public service, and making sure that

October, 1943, pp. 230-37; "Rate Your Manpower Utilization," *Personnel*, November, 1943, pp. 185-91; John M. Pfiffner, "How to Delegate Authority," *Public Management*, December, 1943, pp. 351-53; *Report on the Navy's Utilization of its Civilian Manpower*, S. Doc. 143, 78th Congress (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944).

there is economy in the use of all personnel, especially those already trained and experienced. In such activities as these, the cooperation of the central personnel agency and each line operating department is essential.

As effective as non-financial programs for incentive and stability may be, such programs can have their full effect only when combined with incentives that are essentially financial. Put another way, non-financial incentives lose much of their force whenever pay levels are grossly inadequate. Accordingly, when pay levels are so low as to constitute an insurmountable obstacle to other programs for improved personnel practices, management, and supervision, then pay adjustments are a necessary prelude to such programs.

From an overall administrative standpoint, the role of pay adjustment in wartime is to aid in the accomplishment of other, more positive, programs for tackling wartime difficulties of public management. Pay increase measures can more readily be justified when coupled with intensive and ingenious recruiting practices, thoroughgoing employee utilization programs, and good management and supervisory leadership in the operating agencies of the jurisdiction.

THE ROLE OF A PAY PLAN

IN THE RUSH OF WARTIME it is easy to lose sight of fundamentals. This prompts the observation that consideration of pay matters involves more than questions of adequacy. Pay rates may be sufficiently high, but their full advantage as tools of administration will not be secured unless (a) they are properly related to the work to which they apply and (b) the daily transactions of salary administration are conducted by definite plan and design.

Naturally, effective utilization of personnel is conditioned in part by the employee's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the adequacy of the salary paid him for the work he does. But equally and perhaps more important is how his salary looks to him when compared with the pay of fellow employees. It is the experience in private business and in the public service alike that the salary level for the employee's position does not cause as much dissatisfaction or friction as an actual or fancied discrepancy in the payment for his job compared with others.

Actually, when within a jurisdiction the relation between work done and salaries paid for that work is without rhyme or reason, there is as much loss of effectiveness as if the pay levels themselves were grossly inadequate. Further, such a condition makes it more difficult to adjust pay scales properly to changes in external economic conditions. It is no correction to raise all rates to new levels, while at the same time existing discriminations—the source of employee dissatisfaction—are preserved. If the general level of all salaries in a jurisdiction were raised \$20 a month, the question as to whether the salary of position A bears a proper relation to that of position B would still remain unanswered, and it would still press for a solution.

The kind of corrective action that is needed, as a part of a program for adequate pay scales, is the development of a pay plan which secures and maintains equitable and logical relations between pay scales, on the one hand, and difficulty and responsibility of work, on the other. It avails a government little to appropriate additional funds to make its pay levels socially and administratively sufficient if the total fund available for salaries is apportioned unfairly among the employees of the service.

The interest of employee organizations in seeing that salary administration is based upon a position-classification plan has been repeatedly demonstrated. It was recently reported, in fact, that one union of municipal workers threatened to strike unless, among other things, a classification survey were made upon which standard salaries would be based.³⁹ Note also the following plain statement of a union representative made in negotiations with an industrial concern which was willing to grant a flat increase in pay:⁴⁰

A flat increase by itself is wrong. Some of us have a wage rate that is too low. But others of us have a wage rate that is too high. Some jobs take only four months to learn. They should be relatively low paid. Other jobs take four years to learn. They should be relatively high paid. What we want is scientific wage classification; and then, within those wage classifications, we want individual rewards for individual productive ability.

³⁹ Edward B. Shils, "Philadelphia Streamlines Personnel Plan," *National Municipal Review*, July, 1943, p. 368.

⁴⁰ William Hard, "Needed Now—A Positive Labor Policy for Production," *Readers Digest*, April, 1942, p. 32.

ALL THIS IS FULLY RECOGNIZED by jurisdictions which have established and are operating systematic pay plans, each based upon a position-classification plan.⁴¹ What is always needed for the intelligent and systematic establishment and administration of pay in wartime or otherwise is a plan of the type which incorporates, among other things, the following features:

a. It accepts the classes of positions as they are established, named, and defined by a position-classification plan which groups and designates positions by classes according to likenesses and differences of the work they involve.⁴²

⁴¹ For a brief treatment of position-classification, see the writer's "Basic Aspects of Position-Classification," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1940, pp. 1-17. For a comprehensive treatment, see *Position-Classification in the Public Service*, A Report Submitted . . . by the Committee on Position-Classification and Pay Plans (Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1941). On pages 61-64 of the latter publication will be found a discussion of the reasons for using a position-classification plan as a foundation for a pay plan.

⁴² This grouping indicates which positions deserve like treatment for pay purposes and which require different treatment. It also permits the setting of pay scales and the consideration of pay problems by classes of positions in situations where like consideration of individual positions, one at a time, would be too large a task to be feasible.

b. It prescribes an appropriate pay scale for each class in conformity with the relationships among the classes shown in the position-classification plan.⁴³

c. It provides that the pay scale applicable to any individual position and its incumbent shall be the pay scale for the class to which the position is currently allocated under the operations of the position-classification plan.

d. Through rules of administration, it coordinates the applicability of pay scales and pay rates with the various transactions of position-classification and personnel administration, such as promotions, demotions, and transfers, as well as with increases in effectiveness in the same position.

To assure that any existing pay inequalities will not be perpetuated by blanket salary adjustments, alert public jurisdictions and industrial companies are regarding the development and maintenance of systematic salary administration as a wartime need.

⁴³ A position-classification plan arranges positions by classes in a logical pattern of relationships both by kind of work and by level of difficulty and responsibility. These relationships are essential guides in relating pay rates properly to work.

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Using the Interview to Test Stability and Poise

G. L. FREEMAN

THOSE WHO INTERVIEW APPLICANTS for responsible positions realize that a brief period of "bland" questioning provides insufficient evidence for appraising many personality factors essential to success on the job. More specifically, in the usual discussion with an applicant regarding his qualifications there is little basis for judging how clearly he will think under fire and how adroitly he will handle himself in a difficult situation. That is why many a seasoned employer has often attempted to face applicants for junior executive positions with hypothetical problems calculated to "test their mettle." These efforts at inducing stress are at present largely unstructured and their validity is unknown. However, the value of learning something about candidates' reactions under various conditions makes it desirable to experiment with the interview with the objective of stimulating behavior which will expose significant conduct patterns.

It is apparent that the casual introduction of stress questioning into an interview, just to see if it "riles" the candidate, may complicate rather than simplify the evaluation of an applicant's qualifications. Methods of personality evaluation, in order to be adequate, must develop comparable evidence relevant to ability to do a specific job. Reactions of candidates to hypothetical questions may show perception of what to do in a certain situation, without predicting capacity to carry out the indicated action.¹ Only in the hands of especially competent professional examiners can such reactions be taken as reliable evidence of conduct patterns which affect success on the job.

¹ L. J. O'Rourke, "Oral Examinations," in United States Civil Service Commission *Annual Report*, 1928, pp. 36-50.

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POSSIBILITY OF STANDARDIZED, VALID TESTS

A RECENT SURVEY of interview procedures² has commented on the fact that the analysis of relevant behavior patterns is one of the most difficult tasks in public personnel selection. Yet in no other field are there greater opportunities for making reliable estimates of such factors as stability and poise. Existing civil service selection procedures frequently include the appearance before a group of examiners of candidates who have passed certain objective screening tests. Here are all the elements needed for effective testing of reactions to stress: (1) an interview situation in which standardized and controlled stimulation is possible; (2) the availability of rater-examiners already skilled in competitive oral testing; and (3) a knowledge on the part of the applicant that he is expected to demonstrate by his statements and behavior his fitness for a specific job. The presence or absence of stability and poise can thus be evidenced in responses made to questions which challenge the applicant's alleged capacities or which imply that personal inadequacies exist; but great care must be exercised in the development and analysis of such evidence.

A proper start toward the establishment of appropriate test conditions is made when the interview is set up as a trial act which has as its primary purpose the evaluation of an applicant's skill in applying his special knowledge in situations involving people. The use of both bland and stress questions of information and judgment permits the comparison of a man's behavior under imposed stress with his own base of behavior under less stressful conditions. In constructing trial acts and rating performance therein, it is suggested that the examiners

² Civil Service Assembly Committee Report, *Oral Tests in Public Personnel Selection* (Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1943).

include persons similar to those who will have to judge the effectiveness of performance in the actual job situation. The function of the personnel expert in this connection could well be that of assisting job supervisors to develop relevant behavior patterns in their interviews with candidates and to make pertinent judgments thereon. This procedure recognizes that in the last analysis job success rests upon interpersonal relations and that unless a candidate's personality will permit him to operate in a particular social milieu, his special abilities will have no practical value.³ Skills, experiences, and fundamental abilities can be measured by objective tests, but the only means of predicting an individual's success is by observing him in a trial act. The nearer the trial act is to actual job requirements and the nearer the character of the examining board is to the character of the final evaluating staff, the greater should be the validity of the predictions.

A STRESS INTERVIEW EXPERIMENT

THE WRITER AND HIS ASSOCIATES recently had opportunity to test these principles in connection with examinations conducted under the auspices of the Evanston, Illinois, Civil Service Commission and the Northwestern University Traffic Control Institute. The technique employed has been named *The Stress Interview*, and its systematic presentation appears elsewhere.⁴ The purpose of this report is to summarize the essentials of the method used to select traffic directors and to generalize the procedure for other kinds of jobs.

A job analysis revealed that the characteristics of success in police traffic control work included the ability to keep one's head when working under pressure or when emotionally aroused, the ability to react appropriately while maintaining control of self, and the capacity to impress observers of one's stability and poise. Since the interview was to provide the final screening of applicants who were al-

ready selected upon the basis of intelligence scores and experience records, it was designed to question each individual's competence by use of verbal argument and by complicated mechanical tasks.

The examiners were police officials and personnel experts experienced in competitive oral testing. Independent appraisal of the applicant's effectiveness in social interaction was made by concealed observers who viewed the trial act from behind a ground-glass screen. A brief description of the interview structure follows:

Part 1a—Non-Stress Questioning. The candidate enters and faces an examining board grouped around a portable test apparatus. He is asked his age, interests, and experience. This bland questioning is conducted at a leisurely pace, with all examiners taking a friendly attitude toward the candidate. Set forms of reasoning, character, and technical questions are asked. (Time: 5 minutes.)

The primary purpose of this period is to give examiners opportunity to observe the candidate in a relatively relaxed state. His base of stability and poise is assayed in connection with his answers to the reasoning and character questions. Sometimes a candidate will have built up so much tension in waiting for his interview that up to ten minutes is spent in giving him the opportunity to relax in the situation.

Part 1b—Non-Stress Action. The candidate is told that the job under consideration requires the ability to do several things at once and that the apparatus before him will test that ability. He is seated in front of the portable apparatus and instructed in the technique of operating a serial discriminator with his right hand and of signaling with his left foot whether the solutions to problems appearing on a revolving drum are "right" or "wrong." Both operations are to be carried on simultaneously for 2 minutes, instructions to "start" and "stop" being delivered over earphones from a timing record. In the last 30 seconds of a trial, the timing record tells the candidate to stop his work and repeat, by pressing on the button of a sounder key, telegraph signals which he hears. (Time: 3 minutes.)

Just as the previous period provides a base

³ Attention is called in this connection to the finding of F. J. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939), that production in a worker group depends on effective interpersonal relations. See also F. Fearing in *Studies in Personality*, Merrill and McNamara, Eds., (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1942.)

⁴ G. L. Freeman, G. E. Manson, E. T. Katzoff, and J. H. Pathman, "The Stress Interview," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, October, 1942, pp. 427-47.

for observing the candidate's verbo-intellectual behavior under non-stress conditions, so this part of the interview gives opportunity for observing motor performance when stress is relatively absent. Quantitative records of achievement are, of course, obtained from automatic counters, but in the present usage are not included as evidence. Rather, the test is used as a device which permits examiners to rate the candidate's manner of going about the tasks and to estimate how much the judgment factor is kept open in the analysis and integration of motor skills.

Part 2a—Stress Questioning. Now an examiner looks at the apparatus dials and expresses astonishment that the candidate has done so poorly. The atmosphere of the interview quickly snaps from one of friendly interest to one of cold disdain. Examiners now look for further reasons for rejection. Doubt is cast upon the quality of the candidate's experience. He may be called upon to defend his character. Questions come rapidly and swing from one examiner to another in an effort to confuse response. Any break in the candidate's defense is used to his further disadvantage. In the midst of this verbal barrage, questions of information and judgment similar to those in Part 1a are asked. The pattern of questioning is established so that each examiner has a chance to ask one "set" and one "follow up" question. (Time: 5 minutes.)

This part of the interview shows the candidate's verbo-intellectual ability when he is placed on the defensive. His performance is compared point for point with that exhibited during the period of control (non-stress) questioning. If there are any reversals on hypothetical judgment problems, the discrepancy is noted. The whole intent is to rattle and confuse the candidate and to observe how he behaves under "fire." (It should be noted that stress questions will differ in their specific content, according to the group of candidates being examined.)

Part 2b—Stress Action. The candidate is told that he will be given a chance to better his apparatus score. A ready signal is again given over earphones, but now the timing record fills the interval between "start" and "stop" signals with stories, problems, and commands—some

relevant and some irrelevant to the test situation. When the candidate attempts to follow the commands to tap telegraph signals, he receives electric shocks from the push button. The test ends with this "frustration." (Time: 3 minutes.)

This part helps heighten the candidate's emotional tension, and gives the examiners an opportunity to compare his manner of performance with that exhibited on the non-stress test of action. Even if quantitative records are not sought, the use of an impressive apparatus with clicking dials, phonographic instructions, etc. is an essential property. Alternate timing records are used so that candidates are not set for a specific distraction.

Part 3—Post-Stress Questioning. Even though he may have "broken" on the apparatus test, the candidate is now told that he has done "much better." Some favorable comment is also made upon the candidate's experience, thereby indicating that in so far as the examiners are concerned the stress of the situation has been removed. The candidate may be seated and offered a cigarette, and some casual questions are asked as to what he can remember of the specific problems posed earlier in the interview. As the candidate is finally escorted from the room by one of the examiners, he is left with the feeling that the board has no personal animus toward him. Rating is now made. (Time: 5 minutes. Total interview time: 21 minutes.)

This final period serves two functions. In the first place, it permits examiners to observe the rapidity and degree of return in stability and poise after the "heat" is off a candidate. In the second place, it enables the examiners to "recondition" the candidate so that after undergoing stress he will leave the interview situation with some of his "prestige" feelings restored. Such "face saving" tends to bring back any self confidence the candidate may have lost and helps him to see the trial act more objectively. Most candidates examined by this technique have regarded it as essentially fair and as a very significant personal experience.

RATING THE CANDIDATES

IN THE INTERVIEW JUST DESCRIBED each member of the examining board observed the candidate's behavior with reference to six spe-

cific qualities: emotional stability, dominance, physical poise, resourcefulness, speed of adjustment, and egocentrism. After each interview a question dealing with each quality was answered by selecting from a five-point rating scale the phrase which most nearly described the candidate's behavior in the trial act. On all qualities separate ratings were required for non-stress and for stress behavior, the raters being trained to recognize that the highest degree of each quality was not necessarily the most desired. Ratings of the specific qualities were followed by an evaluative rating. In this the examiner registered his total impression of the candidate's social effectiveness and predicted his success on the job. Final ranking was based on a formula which combined the detailed scores of all examiners and which paid special attention to rapid recovery of poise and stability following stress stimulation.

The reliability and validity of separate ratings and of the final total rankings were determined for two groups of policemen examined by the stress interview method. In one the degree of agreement (reliability) between ratings, as estimated by the intercorrelations, ranged from a low of .72 to a high of .86. Reliability was of about the same order in connection with the second group of tests. Here, in a more elaborate check, it was also found that reliabilities were higher for stress ratings than for ratings of the same qualities made upon the basis of non-stress behavior.

As a check upon the validity of the method used, interview ratings on one group were compared with order-of-merit rankings made by officials familiar with the records made by the candidates in previous positions. The correlation coefficients were .50 between total interview score and the order-of-merit criterion, .74 between non-stress ratings and the criterion, and .33 between the stress ratings and the criterion. These correlations indicate that judgments of behavior based on a brief, trial-act interview tend to agree with judgments made by persons well acquainted with the candidate's field performance. It is to be noted that the correlation is considerably higher when based upon non-stress behavior than when stress behavior is taken into account. This suggests that the usual procedure by which conventional (retrospective) ratings are

obtained inadvertently emphasizes behavior in non-stress situations.

ADAPTABILITY OF THE TRIAL ACT TEST

THE TRIAL-ACT INTERVIEW, as here described, is most suited to the formal examination of candidates by a specially constituted board. The writer feels, however, that certain adaptations would also make the general method suitable for informal interviews conducted by a single examiner. Certain suggestions, based largely on recent experience in military personnel selection, can be made with regard to both types of usage.

German military psychologists⁵ have shown the value of using some complicated apparatus tests as a means of inducing stress in the examination of a candidate by a formal board. In the counterpart of American methods of officer selection, however, stress is usually induced by verbal questioning alone. One exception appeared in the selection of traffic control supervisors for duty with the Expeditionary Forces, where a board interview similar to that herein described used an apparatus as a "prop." The fact that a candidate cannot tell how well he has done on such a test facilitates the introduction of stress questioning, and hence requires no great histrionic ability in the examiners. The attitude of cold and polite sarcasm was usually sufficient to put the intelligent candidate on the defensive and make him try to explain himself in reference to the job. The use of alternate forms of "set" questions helped prevent specific preparation by a candidate as a result of having talked with those already interviewed.

With regard to the effect of such questioning upon applicant morale, there have been conflicting results. At one time, our Navy's processing of applicants for a commission included a brief appearance before an examining board. Here it was customary to face each applicant with questions regarding his presumed value as an officer and with his attitude toward immediate sea duty. The practice was shortly discontinued in favor of the less formalized use of similar "shock" questions in connection with interviews conducted by a single officer. One reason for the shift lay in the difficult public

⁵ H. S. Ansbacher, "German Military Psychology," *Psychological Bulletin*, June, 1941, pp. 370-92.

relations problem presented by occasional inept handling that applicants might receive in the hands of a relatively inexperienced board of examiners. In just as many instances, however, the effect of stress questioning was found to be favorable, rather than disruptive, to applicant morale. When properly handled, the board examination procedure can make the job seem important and challenging. Applicants who begin by condescending to offer their services frequently end by wanting a chance to prove their alleged worth.

When stability and poise are to be judged upon the basis of stress behavior developed in an interview with a single personnel officer, the procedure developed for group examinations needs to be simplified. Though only a single integrative rating is given concerning the social effectiveness of the applicant, some attempt should be made to observe the behavior qualities of stability, poise, resourcefulness, etc., and to base the total impression upon such specific items. The interview pattern will likewise be reduced to bare essentials. A suggested procedure would follow bland questioning about the candidate's background of experience by asking such shock questions as "Why did you apply?" or "Why do you think you should be considered?" and by hypothetical problems posed as a test of an alleged ability to handle the job. Questions of judgment or fact should be sufficiently tuned to the job to command the applicant's respect and sufficiently difficult to leave room for a simulated attitude of disapproval with the answer given. If such questions are handled by a personnel technician with no precise experience in the special field for which a job exists, appropriate stress questions will need to be developed beforehand in consultation with experts in that field. These questions will frequently take such forms as "What would you do if . . . ?" and "How do you plan when . . . ?" They are presented as a challenge to an applicant's alleged fitness and with the implication that the answers fall short of expectation.

It will be seen that such questioning will fit especially well in an interview which is given in connection with an unassembled examination for a professional or administrative post, for which prior experience is claimed. The examiner does not need to raise the point as to

whether the answers given are a reliable index of what the applicant would actually do in a real situation. Rather, he should concentrate on the observation of emergent behavior patterns which are relevant to the rating of stability, poise, and other qualities of social effectiveness.

SUMMARY

THE PROCEDURES ADVOCATED in this report may be summarized briefly as follows: (1) inasmuch as the primary purpose of the interview should be the appraisal of a candidate's ability to use his particular knowledge and experience in a social situation, it should partake of the nature of a trial act; (2) the interview should be patterned so as to exhibit behavior relevant to the demands of a particular job, and evaluations based thereon should have regard for the attitudes characteristic of supervisors of that job; and (3), since such aspects of social effectiveness as stability and poise are best evidenced in behavior during stress, a part of the interview should constitute, in miniature, a stress situation.

It is around this last point that debate is likely to center. Most interviews as now conducted could best be described as pleasant and inconclusive. The candidate does not know whether he has made a poor impression, and he is allowed to go away hoping for the best. If, instead, he has had his authority, experience, or integrity challenged by the examiner, he will probably regard the interview as an unpleasant experience and a conclusive demonstration of his personal inadequacies. Furthermore, if there is any basis for alleged unfairness in personality evaluations, such rigorous interview methods might have unfortunate public relations repercussions. Against these obvious reasons for maintaining the *status quo* of bland interviewing must be set the inherent psychological soundness of stress questioning. The actual dangers are more apparent than real, and practice in reconditioning ruffled applicants at the end of the stress period will go a long way toward gaining a personal acceptance of the fairness and pertinence of the interview.

The writer recognizes that present results are more suggestive than conclusive. Great care must be exercised in further extensions, especially when only the essentials of

stress interviewing are used by individual examiners. The best training for individual interviewing will likely come from participation in the formal group examination of a candidate. A matter to be watched carefully is that the tempo of the procedure is maintained uniformly from one examination to another. Equally important is the fixing of standards for the evaluation of a candidate's reactions. In using a rating schedule, the optimal degree of qualities should reflect job requirements.

The frank admission is made that the interview is a social instrument for making significant social appraisals of such aspects of per-

formance as are affected by the applicant's stability and poise. This points to the need for its continued use and development, even in an era where personnel procedures tend to glorify the importance of objective (non-social) tests of ability. Leadership, poise, and stability are qualities best studied in terms of social interaction. A trial act which sets up in miniature the social aspects of a work situation is still the most direct means of appraising such qualities. Supplementing the bland interview with stress questioning should do much to increase the value of the interview as a selection technique.

Evaluation of Educational Growth During Military Service

RALPH W. TYLER AND LILY DETCHEN

PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATORS, as well as college and university officials and private employers, are already having to meet the problem of evaluating training and experience acquired by individuals during service in the armed forces. When general demobilization begins, this problem will be magnified many times over. Military mobilization on the present huge scale for military action all over the world, using all the facilities of an inventive industrial economy, has a complex significance for potential employers, vocational counselors, academicians, and others interested in the appraisal of the returning veteran's training and experience. On the one hand, experience in the armed forces cannot be dismissed as "years out of one's life" in an evaluation of ability to do civilian work; the tasks of a modern army and navy cut so deeply across the whole range of civilian occupations, that they command legitimate consideration in any appraisal of job qualifications. Also, the necessities of military mobilization have dictated the training, as well as the finding, of persons to do the thousands of skilled jobs of modern war. Especially significant is the fact that, while emphasizing the training of its members to do specific jobs, the armed services have, more than ever before, given opportunities for the pursuit of studies of a more general nature than is usually implied in the word "training."

As demobilized members of the armed services present their training and education claims to schools, civil service agencies, and private job placement agencies, the questions

of evaluating combinations of civilian and military training and experience will require informed treatment if the military phase of the individual's experience is to be fairly weighed. It may be suggested that those who will bear this responsibility in assisting the adaptation of army and navy men and women to civilian life can facilitate that adaptation by being prepared to give full credit for training acquired in military service where such credit is due. By the same token they may avoid much difficulty for their institutions and agencies by being in a position to recognize and verify spurious claims. Such preparation will in part be a matter of familiarization with the educational and training programs in the armed forces.

EDUCATION IN THE ARMED SERVICES

WHILE IN THE ARMY OR NAVY both men and women are finding three types of opportunity for educational growth: in-service training programs, off-duty educational programs, and the many informal experiences that are likely to widen their horizons.¹ The total effect of these educative impacts is very great. In this war many thousands of men and women have already availed themselves of special educational opportunities offered by the United States Armed Forces Institute, which is administered through the Education Branch of the Army's Morale Services Section (formerly Special Service Division). The Institute has been offering an extremely varied and comprehensive educational program for men and women in all branches of the armed services. Although still expanding its program, the Institute already offers through its correspondence-study program a large number of academic and vocational courses at both high

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¹A bibliography listing items regarding the training and educational programs of the armed services, as well as items on the evaluation of armed service educational growth, appears at the end of this article.

school and college levels. Some of these courses have been written especially for the Institute by its own editorial staff, some have been purchased from a commercial correspondence school, and some have been obtained from regular university and college extension schools. Through these means some 300 courses are being offered for nominal fees. Enrollments are being received at the rate of 10,000 per month, approximately forty per cent of these being from men overseas. Branches of the Institute have been established in several key centers throughout the world.

But correspondence study for individuals has not always been practicable. Much needed training has been provided additionally through self-teaching materials. For example, language records have been developed in thirty-five different tongues. Through libraries many necessary textbooks have been provided. Handbooks of various sorts have been developed, one of the more interesting collections being an orientation series on the customs of foreign countries which is supplied to troops entering those countries. In individual camps, ports, and stations there has been a mushroom growth of educational courses—sometimes provided through the cooperation of neighboring schools and colleges, sometimes through military personnel provided for the purpose, and sometimes through volunteer instructors from within the ranks.

DEVELOPMENT OF A MEASUREMENT PROGRAM

EDUCATORS HAVE ALREADY FACED the problem of evaluating growth acquired through these means. Potential employers—public as well as private—may be interested in determining to what extent the solution which has been worked out to meet the educators' problem will solve the similar problems of the potential employers of veterans. The interest of public employers in two types of information seems to have been anticipated in these developments. In those cases where servicemen and women have made use of facilities open to them, information will be available for estimating or determining whether applicant veterans have fulfilled, in their civilian education and during military service, minimum qualifications for entrance to civil service examinations—such as the requirement of "high school

graduation or its equivalent." In like fashion information will also be available for use in rating relevant training and experience gained during military service. Veterans who return to school after being released from the armed services are receiving school credit on the basis of these facilities. Thus, school transcripts or other records or claims of educational attainment later presented to public personnel agencies will include credits based on armed service educational and testing facilities. The following paragraphs trace the development of these facilities.

After the last war many educational institutions, prompted by patriotic gratitude, granted both high school and college credit on a blanket basis to returning servicemen. To avoid repeating this meaningless gesture and to facilitate a helpful plan for interpreting any educational growth that may have been made, a program of credit by examination has been endorsed by educators. This plan operates directly through the United States Armed Forces Institute. It recognizes the need both for intelligent placement of members of the armed forces on their return to educational institutions and for the granting of appropriate recognition for education acquired during the period of service.

Hundreds of colleges and universities have adopted regulations which on the one hand discourage the granting of credit on the basis of service in the armed forces without valid evidence of educational achievement, while, on the other hand, they provide for the granting of academic credit on the basis of competence as demonstrated by performance on examinations. The several educational accrediting associations have endorsed the plan, which was originally developed by a national committee of educators operating through the American Council on Education.

This committee, in its planning stage, worked in close cooperation with the armed services' education officers. After study of the situation, the committee pointed out that the educational work in the Army and Navy could not be satisfactorily evaluated in terms of textbooks used, academic training of the staff, hours spent in study, or other similar features sometimes used in accreditation at civilian institutions. The educational work in the armed forces goes on under widely varying conditions

with vastly different motivation and under the direction of instructors with widely varying abilities. The committee saw that the only fair way to appraise the educational attainments of men in the armed services was through a plan which involved the demonstration of the competence of individuals through examinations. If satisfactory examinations could be constructed it would then be possible for a member of the armed forces to demonstrate his educational attainments no matter how they may have been gained—whether through military training, the educational program, informal experiences, or some combination of these. Hence, the committee registered disapproval of the method of blanket credit as used in World War I, and in its stead proposed that educational placement of returning service personnel and credit be based upon evidence of educational competence shown by adequate examinations.

CREATION OF AN EXAMINATIONS STAFF

FOLLOWING THESE RECOMMENDATIONS, the War Department contracted with the University of Chicago Board of Examinations to prepare tests and examinations for these purposes to be administered through the Armed Forces Institute. These examinations, as well as the educational opportunities of the Institute, are available alike to men and women of all branches of the service: Army, Navy, Coast Guard, and Marine Corps. The test construction group, now known as the Examinations Staff for the United States Armed Forces Institute, includes not only experienced examiners from the University of Chicago Board of Examinations but a number of additional examiners drawn from other institutions.²

The Examinations Staff has been directed to construct four types of examinations, only two of which are primarily to serve as a basis for placement and credit. The first type consists of tests given students at the completion of courses taken in the Institute. These are end-of-course tests and are used primarily to determine

whether the student has mastered the work of the course. Because of the conditions under which course work must go on with men overseas, many of the courses are short and are not equivalent to a semester or year course in high school or college. For example, the usual high school physics course covers three of the Institute courses. Hence the end-of-course tests are not generally to be used as a basis for placement or credit in school or college.

The second type consists of subject examinations. Tests of this type are built to measure the man's competence to deal with the material commonly provided in high school or college courses. For example, the subject examination in high school American history covers content usually included in secondary school courses in American history and attempts to measure the degree to which the objectives commonly emphasized in these courses have been attained. On the basis of this examination it should be possible to know how well the student has mastered the major elements of American history as this subject is outlined in most high schools. As another example, the subject examination in accounting covers the content usually included in accounting courses and attempts to measure the student's competence in terms of the objectives emphasized in most accounting courses. The report on examinations of this type should be of value to the college or university in placing a member of the armed forces when he returns and in granting him fair credit for his educational attainments, and to the public personnel agency in evaluating relevant training.

It may be of interest to digress briefly at this point and describe the construction of a typical subject examination. The steps followed in preparing these examinations are those which are commonly recommended in examination construction. The examiners meet with civilian instructors in the subject to identify the educational objectives which students are expected to attain as a result of instruction. These objectives are defined as clearly as possible in terms of behavior—that is, in terms of definite things which the student should be able to do which indicate that he has attained each objective. On the basis of this definition of objectives it is possible to specify the kinds of exercises needed to test the student's attainment of the

² In general, an examiner working in a particular field is one who has had his graduate training in that field, has taught in that field, and has had further training in examination construction. Thus, the examiner for the physical sciences is a man with a Ph.D. in physics, who has been a teacher of the physical sciences for a number of years, and has had a year of post-doctoral training in test construction.

objective. Following these specifications a large number of test exercises are collected for each of the objectives. A sufficient number of exercises are obtained to provide for two or more forms of the test. These exercises are then tried out with appropriate groups of students and, where possible, with special adult groups. On the basis of this preliminary tryout some exercises are eliminated because they are not discriminating or are ambiguous.

The resulting revised examination is submitted to one or more critics nominated by a professional organization in that subject. For example, the physics test is submitted to persons nominated by the American Association of Physics Teachers, the college mathematics tests to critics nominated by the American Mathematical Society. These critics are asked to check the examinations for comprehensiveness of coverage both in content and objectives, for accuracy of material, and for validity of exercise, that is, whether each exercise is a valid measure of the objective it is supposed to test. On the basis of these criticisms the examination may be revised and, if warranted, given another tryout with an appropriate group. It is then available for use by the Armed Forces Institute. All of them will later be standardized so that data may be made available for interpretations based upon attainment in civilian classes.

THE THIRD TYPE OF TESTS, the most comprehensive variety constructed by the Examinations Staff, are entitled *Tests of General Educational Development*. These tests include the kinds of exercises in the several subject fields which have proved to be good predictors of further success in these fields. The items in science, social science, and literature are in the form of reading and interpretation exercises. The reading material has been so chosen and the exercises so constructed that they require a good deal of basic knowledge and vocabulary in the subject field as well as ability to analyze and synthesize the reading matter presented in order for the student to answer the questions successfully. The items in English composition not only test the mechanics of expression but also require the student to make choices involving clarity, organization, and taste in language.

This placement battery should prove par-

ticularly useful for members of the armed forces who have been out of school for some time but who have had many educational experiences since leaving school. Two batteries have been developed, one for the high school level and the other for the college level. As we all realize, a very large number of men and women have had their educations interrupted by the war, and it is improbable that they will ever return to regular day school or college. The usefulness of this particular battery of tests to a potential employer should thus be clear, for it appraises general educational background. Both the high school and college batteries have been widely standardized in a program whose scope assures the most adequate set of such norms ever developed.

THE FOURTH TYPE OF TEST will be of use only in certain individual cases. These are tests constructed specifically to measure the soldier's competence in certain highly technical fields of special military importance,³ such as ultra-high frequency electronics. These tests are given to the men and women who complete the training courses in these fields and wish to use the examination results as evidence of competence in candidacies for officer commissions. Some colleges and universities are also using the results of these examinations in the case of former students who are candidates for degrees. The results serve as evidence of attainment in the student's major field or as evidence of accomplishment in an elective course.

The array of examinations being developed include all of the usual academic fields at both the high school and college levels—English, mathematics, social studies, science—as well as the majority of the most popular vocational choices of young people, such as commercial subjects, auto mechanics, radio, blueprint reading, etc. Also included are the college engineering courses that are most closely paralleled to necessary military training, such as surveying, engineering, mechanics, and electronics.

³ The Armed Forces Institute examinations staff has not participated in the examination of servicemen and women following the technical courses given to the mass of armed service members, and the AFI will not ordinarily have detailed examination results on armed force technical training. The AFI does, however, receive on request a record of subjects studied in service schools.

USING THE FACILITIES FOR EVALUATION

THE WRITERS HAVE BEEN ASKED to describe the educational accomplishment records which are available to civil service agencies and to relate how such records may be secured. The Armed Forces Institute has procedures for assembling and releasing to a school, former employer, "other properly interested agency or person," or to the serviceman himself, the complete record of military and educational training of any member of the armed services.⁴ It is contemplated that these records will be assembled for civilian placement only with respect to service personnel who are about to be discharged or who have been discharged. If the serviceman has had the Institute assemble his record, that record will be supplied on the application of the serviceman or the "properly interested agency."

The Armed Forces Institute compiles the educational record only of those servicemen and women who use its extension course, examination, or guidance facilities, or who specifically request the compilation of such records. Although efforts are being made to inform servicemen of the facilities available to them, it is altogether possible that many men and women will be demobilized without ever hearing of the Armed Forces Institute. In this connection, it may be suggested that governmental agencies which are keeping in touch with their servicemen employees may well advise them to apply to the Institute before their discharge for a record of their educational accomplishments during service. Such records may be relevant to placement upon reinstatement in civilian employment, and should be particularly helpful in those cases where military service has been accompanied by marked development of capacities.

THE RECORDS CURRENTLY PROVIDED by the Institute are in the form of a dossier. The dossier typically includes a verified summary statement of civilian education, service job, service schools and courses attended, off-duty educational courses completed, and Armed Forces Institute examinations taken. The various parts of the dossier then provide detailed

information on each of these items. (Previous civilian education will appear in detail only if the serviceman has furnished the Armed Forces Institute with a transcript of his credits.) Training at service schools is outlined in detail, the topics treated in each course being described. However, no results of examinations on completion of these courses are currently provided. The formal job descriptions for the Army or Navy jobs held subsequent to training form a part of the record. Quite complete information is provided with respect to correspondence courses taken. The name of the institution offering the course, the objectives of the course, and a summary of each lesson or unit of lessons, along with information as to whether the course was successfully completed, and whether, in addition, an examination was taken over the field, are included in the record. If the applicant has taken any of the four types of examinations noted earlier, the results, in detail, are included in the dossier, along with information for use in interpreting the scores attained on the tests.

Since the examinations simply report the examinee's proficiency in terms comparable with the performance of a traditionally trained group, they should be as useful to a civil service agency, or for that matter to any employing agency, as any academic record may now be. In fact they should be even more useful than the traditional academic record since the results will give a more diagnostic description of the potential employee's record than any single grade in a school course can now do. The examinations have been constructed to yield part-scores so that it is possible for the Institute Registrar to report, for example, that the person can solve quadratic equations and knows the important technical terms of college algebra, but that he cannot solve simultaneous quadratic equations. The report will state in addition whether performance in each of these areas was "high" or "passing," where "passing" means meeting minimum civilian school requirements. For many examinations there will eventually be available additional tables of norms, in terms of percentiles, based on performance in a comparable examination of civilian students who have had a full year's instruction in the subject. Also, it will be possible for the employing agency to obtain from the

⁴The address of the Headquarters of the Armed Forces Institute is "Madison 3, Wisconsin."

American Council on Education⁵ the civilian forms of the general educational development and subject examinations for more careful consideration of their content, as well as for possible administration to other employees.

THE RECORDS PROVIDED in the Armed Forces Institute dossier will not always be easy to evaluate. It may be difficult to determine, for example, that a particular serviceman who had partially completed high school before entrance into service has now the equivalent of a high school education, or that others who have taken described courses and spent stated periods on described service jobs have had occupational training and experience of a particular numerical value in relation to a civilian job. However, the Armed Forces Institute is providing information which allows intelligent treatment of such questions, and by providing information in detail, it avoids the imposition of preconceived standards into such records.

When it is considered that the Institute is barely two years old at this writing, that its accomplishments have already been substantial, and that it undoubtedly has ahead of it during the demobilization period several more years of development, its post-war implications for potential employers assume great significance.

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Preparing Now for Post-War Personnel Administration

CARL L. RICHEY

WARTIME PERSONNEL ADVANCES

MOST PERSONNEL AGENCIES have, at some time in their histories, been subjected to criticism by the administrators of operating departments. Typical accusations include assertions that the creation of eligible registers has been unduly delayed, that examinations are too lengthy and not wholly valid, or that the personnel agency is more concerned with meticulous adherence to established procedures than with aiding in the solution of administrative problems. The list of accusations could be extended *ad infinitum*, but such length would simply suggest why peptic ulcers are sometimes said to be the major occupational hazard of public personnel work.

It is unfortunate that in many instances these indictments have had considerable foundation in fact. Surprisingly enough, however, the exigencies of wartime personnel administration have resulted in the adoption of various new or improved practices which remove at least some of the grounds for this justified criticism. Such improvements, if their values are fully and continually recognized, augur well for the future of personnel administration.

It is also possible at the present time to begin to take the measure of some of the problems which will confront personnel administrators in the post-war period. Serious consideration now of both the immediate and longer term horizons in the field seems essential if personnel agencies are to function as vital and dynamic forces in the public administration of the future. In meeting this challenge public personnel administrators fortunately have the benefit of the experiments of other agencies.

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DURING 1942, and again in 1943, the Headquarters Office of the Civil Service Assembly conducted questionnaire surveys to ascertain what public personnel agencies were doing to maintain effective operations despite manpower shortages and other war-born ills.¹ The summary report of the 1943 survey shows that various means have been adopted by many agencies to meet emergency conditions. Since none of the steps taken are startling or particularly new, their greatest significance lies in the fact that some of them have distinct possibilities of becoming a part of permanent operating practice.

Among the changes in methods are the increased use of advertising publicity in announcing vacancies, the scheduling of examinations outside of regular office hours for the convenience of applicants, and the use of more examination centers in jurisdictions that are geographically large. It seems clear that these three improvements will definitely aid the agencies adopting them to render continuously better services to the operating departments. For example, effective publicity in a normal labor market permits shortening the period during which applications will be accepted, thereby reducing the total time between a supervisor's need for a new employee and the creation of an eligible register.

It is also reasonable to expect that greater consideration for the convenience of applicants in conducting examinations will produce a larger supply of qualified applicants, since it facilitates the participation of those who are already employed—particularly in private industry. This latter group, incidentally, has usually been confronted with a dilemma by the

¹ See Civil Service Assembly *News Letter*, August, 1942, pp. 5-8; and September, 1943, pp. 69-72.

conduct of civil service examinations during normal working hours. If they desired to participate, they were faced with several undesirable options: advising their employer that they were, in effect, looking for another position; claiming illness or telling some other untruth on the day of the examination; or being charged with an unauthorized absence. Removal of such handicaps to applicants has obvious advantages.

The greater use of training programs is another development which has been brought about by personnel shortages. Properly conducted training activities have always paid dividends in terms of more efficient operations and better employee morale. They also provide another source of qualified candidates, who, because they already have some familiarity with general standards and procedures in the jurisdiction, are frequently more acceptable to departmental supervisors.

A further extremely practical advance is the development of more refined records of employee skills to facilitate transfers and promotions. The essentiality of this type of record in a progressive personnel agency is clear, yet many agencies had not previously maintained such a source of vital information.

THIS IS ONLY A PARTIAL LIST of modern techniques which, according to the findings of the Assembly's survey, are becoming more prevalent. A very striking feature of the survey, however, was the disappointingly large number of agencies which had not adopted even these clearly advantageous measures and, moreover, reported that they did not plan to do so. A number of others regarded them as purely stopgap expedients suitable only for the duration of the war emergency.

Mention may also be made of the fact that a large majority of the reporting agencies had not used and did not plan to use continually open examinations and eligible lists. Yet further progress on this particular development is important in helping to eliminate delays in getting jobs filled—delays which now furnish the basis for a large number of complaints about the adequacy of personnel services. The maintenance of open registers presents some practical difficulties, but their solution bears fruit in the resulting good will and support

forthcoming in other personnel matters from the supervisor who gets an employee very shortly after the need develops. A number of agencies appear to have been successful in overcoming the major obstacles involved in open lists, so we know that they are feasible.

From the survey report, as a whole, the conclusion can be derived that the war has brought about a more widespread adoption of various personnel practices which, if continued, will eliminate many legitimate complaints about the quality and promptness of services to the operating departments. On the other hand, it is equally clear that more than one agency may well remain "a puny and unloved runt in the administrative family" ² for failing to inaugurate such methods and techniques. This latter prospect is particularly unfortunate because analysis of present and anticipated conditioning factors suggests that the future administrative atmosphere within which individual personnel agencies function will definitely not be of the pre-Pearl Harbor variety.

POST-WAR PROBLEMS

FOR A NUMBER OF YEARS, now, the scope of services rendered by government and the span of governmental regulation have both progressively broadened. The necessities of war have brought about still greater regulatory activities and the performance of additional services, thus accelerating this trend. Nor is it reasonable to expect that the cessation of hostilities will immediately bring about a sharp reversal of the trend. The complete or partial demobilization of the emergency organizations which are essential to the war effort will obviously create many immediate and pressing problems for personnel agencies when hostilities cease. Even if it is assumed that wartime controls eventually will be largely eliminated, it seems certain that the over-all problems of governmental administration will be qualitatively no simpler than before the outbreak of war.

It is also true that the pressures of war have quickened other trends and processes which would otherwise have matured over a longer period of years. For example, statements have

² See Maxwell A. DeVoe, "Administrative Relationships of Public Personnel Agencies," *Public Personnel Review*, January, 1941, p. 27.

been made in recent months that the progress of industrial research has been speeded up by approximately ten years as a direct result of the war. Manufacturers are already hinting in their advertisements of some remarkable civilian applications of electronics, plastics, and other developments which will have profound effects on our way of living, both physical and mental. On every hand there are indications that creative imagination has been used, accompanied by a lot of hard work. Personnel administration must be characterized by this same approach if it is to assist government and its institutions in being responsive to the need for similar advances in the conduct of the public business.

In the planning and public works departments of practically every governmental jurisdiction thought is already being given to programs of activities to be launched when war-born shortages of manpower and materials are dissipated by the return of peace. This fact underscores the necessity for the personnel agencies serving them to be geared up for meeting the burdens imposed when such programs actually get under way.

THE STARK REALITIES of armed combat are accustoming our fighting men and their commanding officers to having at hand the arms and equipment necessary for success. The stern lessons that have been learned as a consequence of "too little and too late" have resulted in the military supply services and the production forces of the nation seeing to it that the men on the firing line have the tools with which to fight winning battles. When these men return to their civilian occupations, they will have strong words (to say the least) if getting their jobs done is impeded by unnecessary "red tape" or by personnel processes which are not characterized by precision, speed, and effectiveness.

It is likewise well to remember that our soldiers and sailors have had time to think. Few of them could qualify as experts in global politics, but it is significant that the greatest demands for books by the armed forces are for those on such serious subjects as economics, geography, and world politics.³ Even though the major

topics of thought are of survival and going home, their thinking is becoming more critical and objective. On the home front the subject of international cooperation is being discussed by individuals in many walks of life. Everyone who thinks at all in these terms is broadening his mental horizons, and this expansion of view will inevitably be reflected in the manner in which other problems are approached. The point is that many civilians and former service men will bring to their daily work a habit of thinking in wider and more objective patterns than heretofore. Accordingly, it is reasonable to believe that personnel agencies from top to bottom will be expected to have a broader concept of their part in the total fabric of public administration.

A more tangible problem—one that will create added burdens on personnel agencies—is the situation that will arise when large groups of former employees return from the armed services. Both men and women are acquiring new skills in military life, and many of them will not be content to return to their previous civilian jobs.⁴ We cannot predict the particulars of individual cases but it is obvious that examination specialists or classification technicians, as such, are simply not equipped to handle intelligently and effectively the occupational readjustment of former employees as they return to work.

MEETING FUTURE CONDITIONS

IN PREPARING TO COPE with the burdens imposed by the above situations, as well as others which cannot be anticipated at this time, it appears necessary to take at least three steps. The most obvious one is the further adoption of improved personnel practices and techniques already discussed briefly in this article. These moves would be warranted under any circumstances, but they become imperative when realistic consideration is given to the future.

As a second step, agencies must develop some broad-gauged personnel officers who have a basic understanding of all the various specialized phases of personnel administration. Since it is practically impossible to recruit personnel workers of this stature, the problem becomes

³ See Dale Kramer, "What Soldiers are Thinking About," *Harper's Magazine*, December, 1943, pp. 68-75.

⁴ See Eli Ginsberg, "Occupational Adjustment," *American Sociological Review*, June, 1943, pp. 256-63.

one of training the existing staff or relatively inexperienced individuals. Because much has already been written on the subject of training for tillers of the public personnel field,⁵ there is no need to include here what would necessarily be an inadequate presentation of it.

The third step necessary in order to meet anticipated post-war problems is preparation for the greater participation of personnel agencies in organizational matters. Evidence that they can render effective service in this field is already available.⁶ Immediately after peace is declared, a multiplicity of problems involving organizational considerations will arise and demand proper and expeditious solution. Because a majority of personnel agencies do not now concern themselves with organization, it seems appropriate at this point to discuss some of the situations which are certain to develop and the consequences of failure to take effective action.

CONSULTATION ON ORGANIZATION PROBLEMS

EVERY JURISDICTION in the nation undoubtedly has created some positions or organizations "for the duration." Their liquidation when peace is declared, or their continuance in lesser degree, will in many cases be an uphill battle because of the known propensity of individuals and groups for self-perpetuation. The decision as to their fate involves questions of policy which must be determined by the appropriate policy determining agencies. Once those decisions are reached, however, the personnel agency is necessarily concerned with the actions taken.

The positions and organizations created for war purposes will not disappear overnight. For many, the prospects appear better for liquidation over a period of time. As the scope of a program is reduced, the basis for some position allocations will be eliminated. Therefore, unless the personnel agency collaborates closely with the operating groups during this period, many positions will be improperly classified. Keeping allocations in line will not be so much

a matter of down-grading positions as it will be the taking advantage of opportunities to terminate individuals here and there at higher classification grades, or the consolidation of activities in order to maintain the basis for retaining some allocations. Faulty placements, perhaps involving questions of eligibility or status, are another distinct possibility during the period of administrative readjustment.

When these and other undesirable possibilities are visualized, it is obviously a matter of self-interest to the personnel agency to be on the job when war organizations are in a process of transition. Moreover, when organizations are in a state of flux, the resultant tangled situations are not likely to be handled with full effectiveness from a personnel point of view unless the personnel representative has some idea of the principles of good organization.

Even if the jurisdiction has an able staff in the office of the chief executive or elsewhere—a staff that is responsible for administrative planning and organizational analysis functions—the volume of problems arising immediately after the war will undoubtedly tax severely the capacity of such a staff, for it is usually limited to a comparatively few individuals. In all probability, its members will have their hands full in rendering intelligent advice to their principals on the questions of policy which will arise. At the federal level, the staff of the Division of Administrative Management in the Bureau of the Budget would probably be the first to admit that some practical assistance on organizational matters from any source would be most welcome in meeting the anticipated deluge of post-war problems.

MANY ORGANIZATIONAL PROBLEMS will grow out of the work assignments of employees returning from military service. The most numerous will be individual problems—small individually but cumulatively quite significant—and of such a nature that they would not normally come to the attention of an administrative planning unit, if such a unit exists in a jurisdiction. Although the street cleaner's job or that of an electrician may not have been affected materially by wartime conditions, many other positions will have been modified by various circumstances. In the pe-

⁵ For a rather recent article, see George F. Gant and Henry C. Hart, "The TVA Program for Developing Personnel Staff Replacements," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1942, pp. 265-71.

⁶ See Edward H. Litchfield, "Organization Analysis Surveys in a Personnel Agency Program," *Public Personnel Review*, October, 1943, pp. 230-37.

riod of time that employees have been away, departmental programs may have changed in content or emphasis, with organizational adjustments made accordingly. Therefore, the exact job formerly performed by the employee may no longer exist. It is also well to remember that employees who have remained on the job will have grown in capacity and skill. Such growth cannot be cut short or overlooked without harmful effects, so that this factor must receive consideration.

In many instances, returning service men (and women, too) will have acquired new skills which may possibly be utilized to the advantage of all concerned. Then, also, there will be the problem presented by the permanently disabled individuals who, while not physically or mentally able to perform their old jobs, can render useful service of a different or limited nature. Their handicaps may actually give them legal preferences or protection.

These are only a few of the circumstances which will be present when former employees are released by the armed services. Many individual cases will represent a combination of the above and other conditions; their disposition will be no easy matter. In effecting the necessary adjustments, administrators and personnel workers alike will have to use all the knowledge and judgment they can bring to bear on each case. Neither can do the whole job alone. There will be need for simple justice to the individual without a consequent impairment of the efficiency with which the public business is conducted. In striving for this dual objective, it seems clear that some gross mistakes will be made unless the judgments rendered in each case include full consideration of the principles of effective organization.

CONTINUING NEED FOR ADMINISTRATIVE SKILL

THE FOREGOING DISCUSSION should not be construed to mean that a knowledge of organization principles and their practical application are necessary adjuncts to the body of skills of personnel officers only because of post-war adjustments which will have to be made. The emergence of these problems simply serves to point up a need which exists at all times in the conduct of a personnel job as a real service to the operating departments.

That such a need is constant is evidenced by

the statement, "... it is clear that a position-classification plan, the processes of fact-finding and analysis it involves, and the agency which develops and maintains it, have special contributions to make in solving the technical problems of organization structure."⁷ Other authorities in the fields of public administration hold similar views.⁸ Moreover, every personnel worker having occasion to analyze positions in order to set up programs for examination, classification, or training purposes has observed such violations of sound organization practice as divided responsibilities, exceeding the "span of control," excessive number of levels in the administrative hierarchy, and similar conditions which impair maximum performance.⁹ Situations of this sort not only reduce efficiency, but they tend to lower the morale of employees, as well as to make the over-all personnel job more difficult.

When, in the course of personnel activities, evidences of poor organization are observed, there are no sound reasons why a personnel agency should avoid making recommendations to a departmental supervisor concerning appropriate remedial action. The personnel agency will ordinarily have no power to enforce its recommendations, and, in any event, it should not attempt to usurp the powers of administrators in running their departments. It will be found in many cases, however, that organizational recommendations will be related to the proper allocation of one or more positions, will bear upon a placement question, or may pertain to devising an examination to fill

⁷ See Report of the Committee on Position Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Service, *Position Classification in the Public Service* (Chicago: Civil Service Assembly, 1941), p. 75.

⁸ See Leonard D. White, *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* (New York: Macmillan, 1939), p. 335. Also see Floyd W. Reeves and Paul T. David, "Personnel Administration in the Federal Service," in President's Committee on Administrative Management, *Report with Special Studies* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937), pp. 116-17.

⁹ For a collection of writings on organization and administration, see Luther Gulick and L. Urwick, editors, *Papers on the Science of Administration* (New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937). Also see Holden, Fish, and Smith, *Top Management Organization and Control* (Palo Alto: Stanford University Press, 1941). This latter publication is a survey of practices in 31 industrial organizations having from 5,000 to 70,000 employees. A number of the recommendations therein are pertinent to the public service, but others are not applicable or else have their merits obscured by the fact that they are generalizations which are not related specifically to the varying sizes of organizations.

a position. In fact, some positions cannot be classified correctly until organizational relationships have been clarified. Thus, organizational questions can be introduced as a natural concern of the personnel agency in getting its more obvious functions accomplished effectively.

IT WILL BE NOTED, no doubt, that the views here expressed run counter to the frequently propounded theory that personnel workers in general, and classification officers in particular, should properly concern themselves only with the facts of positions as they are found. It may well be that such a narrow view accounts for a number of the difficulties which classifiers normally experience in the conduct of their daily work. For example, when presented with a request for an unjustified allocation by a departmental supervisor, the classification technician often feels that he must reject it and defend his point of view to the last ditch. Yet the supervisor has probably made his request because of work load pressures, recruitment difficulties, the prospect of losing the services of an efficient employee, or similar factors which create administrative problems. When a deadlock is reached in such cases, the supervisor's difficulties are still unresolved and all concerned are unhappy about the situation. Some of these dilemmas might be solved easily (or perhaps avoided altogether) by suggesting the addition of certain duties or the delegation of particular responsibilities which would strengthen the position enough to justify a higher classification. Thus, a knowledge of the work unit involved and of good organization practices may serve not only to avoid strained relationships but also to enable a constructive solution of an administrative problem.

Such an approach is not possible in every case where there is a difference of opinion on the proper classification of a position. Moreover, suggestions which are counter to good organizational practice should not be made merely for purposes of preserving inter-agency peace. It should be borne in mind, however, that supervisors generally review too much of the work of their subordinates, rather than too little. Therefore, increased delegations to lower levels in the administrative hier-

archy, with consequent upward adjustment of position allocations at these levels, frequently improve the organization. The improvement results from the fact that decision-making is placed closer to the point where the work is actually done and thereby expedites getting the work out. By thus being sensitive to the possibility of organizational adjustments, the personnel agency may well be able to evolve mutually satisfactory arrangements which coincidentally solve a supervisor's problem, maintain sound classification and other personnel standards, and effect organizational improvements.

It should again be emphasized that the initiator of such suggestions should know what he is doing. He should know whether his proposals strengthen the organization of the work unit involved, weaken it, or have no appreciable effect. Even in this last situation his ideas might still be presented, if they will eliminate a dispute with a supervisor. One way of characterizing such an approach to the classification process is that it constitutes "positive classification." The phrase "positive recruitment," as applied to an intelligent and aggressive program for securing qualified applicants, has become common in the personnel field. The classification technician should apply a similarly intelligent and aggressive attitude in helping to make his personnel specialty a greater contribution to over-all administration.

THE ELASTIC PERSONNEL ROLE

THE PRACTICAL application of a knowledge of organizational principles to facilitate position-classification processes is only one illustration of how a broader concept of personnel administration may benefit the personnel agency as well as the jurisdiction of which it is a part. It is not difficult to visualize similar advantages accruing from the application of the same approach in dealing with departmental supervisors on other phases of personnel administration, such as recruitment, training, or employee relations.

It is not possible in this brief article to explore the various fields of human knowledge which might have definite implications for the programs of progressive personnel agencies. However, the fact that there are so many advantages to the jurisdiction as a whole from the

participation of personnel agencies in the single field of organization automatically raises a general question concerning the necessity for broadening the normal or current concept of personnel administration. The issue is not that of reaching out for greater power and authority; rather, it is a matter of doing the kind of a personnel job that represents a real service to the operating departments. Broadening the base lines of personnel administration appears to be a fundamental need, for no amount of gazing into a crystal ball will produce a clear and detailed picture of post-war personnel problems. If a comprehensive view of service possibilities is adopted, there will be little necessity for concern about taking the three steps suggested as being essential earlier in this article. Improving the mechanical tools of personnel administration, developing broader gauged staff members, and contributing to the solution of organizational and management problems—each of these will become an integral part of a larger pattern.

Support for such a revised pattern is derived from the fact that a number of progressive personnel agencies are already using it successfully. Moreover, it is substantiated by the fact that it is fundamental to the only kind of personnel administration which can accompany a public administration that is "warm, vibrant, human", one that "plans . . . , contrives . . . , philosophizes . . . educates . . . , and builds for the community as a whole."¹⁰ If it is argued that the conduct of the public business has not yet reached this stage of development, we can be more certain that it will if the personnel job is done with such a concept as the background for its program. And, by conducting its work in this manner, personnel administration will not only play its part in bringing this war to a successful conclusion at the earliest possible moment, but will contribute most to "winning the peace" which follows.

¹⁰ See Marshall E. Dimock, "The Criteria and Objectives of Public Administration," which appears in *The Frontiers of Public Administration* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936), p. 133.

COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

Constitutionality of Civil Service Legislation—Ohio City Health Commissioners. The constitutionality of the Ohio civil service law as applied to city health commissioners was recently upheld in *Scofield v. Strain*, 51 N. E. (2d) 1012 (Ohio). In answer to the argument that the enactment of the law violated the state constitutional provision forbidding the exercise of the appointing power by the General Assembly, the court said:

The present employees of the city health districts were selected and appointed or employed by the various boards of health as expressly authorized by law. The legislative act in question merely accords to those employees the benefits of a civil service status by requiring that their removal must be in accordance with civil service laws. The enactment of such provision does not constitute an appointment. . . . It is clearly within the legislative power. . . .

The court also held that the law did not contravene the state constitutional prohibition against retroactive legislation, stating:

This provision is not retroactive in effect. On the contrary, it is prospective in that it enumerates certain positions which shall thereafter be within the merit system and makes it applicable to those who were holding such positions at the time the act became effective.

It had also been argued that city health commissioners were officers, rather than employees, so that they were not subject to the civil service provisions, which applied only to employees. The court believed that, since health commissioners performed their functions under the supervision and direction of the Board of Health, they were employees, rather than officers. The court's reasoning on this point was as follows:

The chief and most decisive characteristic of a public office is determined by the quality of the duties with which the appointee is invested, and by the fact that such duties are conferred upon the appointee by law. If such duties are prescribed by statute, and their performance involves the exercise of continuing, independent political or governmental functions, then the position is a public office, and not an employment.

Applying this general principle, the court pointed out that the authority of a health com-

missioner is not directly conferred or assigned to him. . . .

by any provision of law, nor is his tenure of service . . . fixed or compensation prescribed. It is to be observed that the authority for the appointment of a health commissioner is precisely the same as for the appointment of nurses, physicians, guards and other employees, and all are under the direction, supervision and control of the board of health.

Civil Service Boards—Membership Qualifications—Dual Employment. The Florida Civil Service Board Act provides that no member of a civil service board "shall hold any other office under or be employed in any capacity by the United States, State of Florida or any City or County of the State." The Florida Supreme Court has ruled that a trustee of the Jacksonville Free Public Library was neither an officer nor an employee within this provision, and was thus eligible for membership on a county civil service board. (*In re Advisory Opinion to the Governor*, 15 So. [2d] 765 [Fla.].) The court's reasoning was as follows:

The Jacksonville Free Public Library is administered by "trustees" designated by the City Commission; they receive no compensation and donate their services to the City. Their duties as trustees are not governmental in nature or in any sense those of an employee of the City. The administration of a library is in no sense governmental; it does not require or contemplate the delegation of any portion of the sovereign power to those (trustees) who administer it; it does not embrace emoluments or duties that are governmental; it has no semblance of a permanent governmental trust to be exercised in behalf of the city nor does it involve the exercise of independent authority of a governmental nature.

(*Editor's Note.* The court's emphasis on the non-governmental nature of the duties is unfortunate. City employees engaged in so-called proprietary functions certainly remain city employees. The result may be a sound one, but the reasoning is questionable.)

Judicial Review—Exhaustion of Administrative Remedies. A civil service employee may not secure an injunction against administrative proceedings charging him with absence from duty without leave, where an adequate statutory remedy is provided. This fundamental rule was applied in *Hanebuth v. Scott*, 142 Pac. (2d) 1008 (Colo.), where it was pointed out that a dis-

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charged civil service employee had the statutory right to appeal to the civil service commission, and thence to the courts. "Thus he had the asserted remedy at law and was bound to pursue it before resorting to injunction," the court ruled.

The rule requiring exhaustion of administrative remedies was also applied in *Clark v. State Personnel Board*, 144 Pac. (2d) 84 (Cal.), with the result that a writ of mandamus was denied to a petitioner who sought to compel a change in her classification, but who had failed to apply for a rehearing permitted by the civil service statute after her first request had been denied by the State Personnel Board. Discussing the reasons for the general rule, the court stated:

The enforcement of the rule requiring exhaustion of administrative remedies before resort to the courts is not a matter of judicial discretion, but is a fundamental rule of procedure. The Civil Service Act does not expressly require that an application for rehearing be made a condition precedent to redress in the courts, neither does the Act expressly designate a remedy in the courts. When, as here, the act provides for a rehearing and makes no provision for specific redress in the courts, the rule of the exhaustion of administrative remedies supplies such omission by requiring a rehearing as a condition precedent to an appeal to the courts.

Salary — Employee's Rights — Jurisdiction of State Court of Claims. The New York Court of Claims has ruled that it has no jurisdiction to review action of the State Civil Service Commission by way of determining a salary claim which exceeds the amount certified by the Commission. "Mandamus has been recognized as the proper remedy . . . but here no authority has been shown conferring jurisdiction on the Court of Claims to hear, audit and determine claims of this character." (*Marasco v. State*, 44 N. Y. S. [2d] 694 [Ct. Claims].)

Scope of Civil Service Law—Independent Contracts—Postwar Projects. The use of private architectural and engineering firms by the city of New York for the construction of post-war projects, and a refusal to utilize civil service employees, was held not to violate the state constitutional provision requiring appointments in the civil service of the state and cities "to be made according to merit and fitness. . . ." (*Civil Service Technical Guild v. LaGuardia*, 44 N. Y. S. [2d] 860 [Sup. Ct. Sp. Term].) The court ruled:

The award of contracts for architectural and engineering work does not constitute a method for making "appointments" in the "civil service" of the city. The provisions of the contracts awarded do not create any employer-employee relationship but a contractual one between an independent contractor and the city.

The court relied to some extent on *Matter of*

Social Investigator Eligibles Association v. Taylor, 268 N. Y. 233, 237, 197 N. E. 262, 264, where it had been pointed out that the constitutional civil service provision "is addressed to conventional and stable duties of the functionaries of civil government." The decision regarding the architectural and engineering firms has recently been affirmed by the Appellate Division. A similar case is now before the Court of Appeals awaiting decision.

Veterans' Preference—Status of Eligible—Continuing Nature of Application for Appointment.

The New York State Constitution and the state civil service law provide that honorably discharged soldiers, disabled in the actual performance of duty in any war to an extent recognized by the United States Veterans' Bureau, and whose disability exists at the time of application for appointment, shall be entitled to preference, regardless of their standing on the eligible list. In *Manko v. City of Buffalo*, 44 N. Y. S. (2d), 829 (Sup. Ct., Special Term), it was held that an "application for appointment" continues from the time when it was first filed down to and until an actual appointment, with the result that a veteran whose disability status is recognized at any point during such period is entitled to preference. "When the constitution and the statute say that the disability must exist 'at the time of his or her application for appointment', I do not take it to comprehend merely the date upon which an applicant's request is first made known," the court said. "Under the circumstances here presented this petitioner was an applicant from January 3, 1942, right down to May 6, 1942, of which the civil service commission was kept constantly and adequately advised." Since the commission was informed on April 16, 1942, that the Veterans' Bureau had recognized the petitioner's status, and at that time no appointment had been made, petitioner was held entitled to preference.

Classification — Effect on Existing Tenure Rights. In a lengthy opinion, the Oregon Supreme Court has upheld the classification order of a city civil service board where that order, and amendments thereto, clearly indicated that the transfer and seniority rights of employees holding positions at the time the order was issued were not to be prejudiced. (*Drake v. City of Portland*, 143 Pac. [2d] 213 [Ore.].)

The classification order undertook to establish three separate classifications for work performed by clerks in the revenue division of the Portland Bureau of Water Works. Some of the employees

whose titles were changed claimed that their right to be transferred from one position to another was adversely affected. The court pointed out that under a specific city charter provision, the employees' transfer rights were adequately protected. This provision reads:

No person shall, without examination, be transferred to or assigned to perform the duties of any position in the classified service unless he shall have been appointed to the position from which such transfer is made as the result of an open competitive examination equivalent to that required for the position to which the transfer is made, or unless he shall have served with fidelity for at least six years in a like position in the service of the city.

This provision, permitting transfers under specified circumstances, is still applicable despite the reclassification order, since the civil service board could not override a provision of the charter; and the evidence indicated it had no intention of doing so.

The court explained that under the charter the board had express power to classify. However, it was denied any right to affect the status of civil service employees, and the court pointed out that the board attempted no change in existing tenure rights.

The classification order . . . is not concerned with the rights or status of anyone who was in the city's employ at the time of its entry except to change the name of the job or position that he held. It is not a classification of employees, but of jobs or positions. . . . We are satisfied that the challenged classification was intended to serve only the purpose of future examinations and recruitments.

Probationary Employees—Examination of Probationary Period—Summary Removal. Under the West Virginia statute a probationary employee may be peremptorily discharged at the end of his probationary term solely because his services are deemed unsatisfactory, and the statute "does not require the notice to the probationer to contain the statement of a reason for either his capacity or his conduct being unsatisfactory." (*Fiedler v. Thackston*, 275 E. [2d] 278 [W. Va.].) The court held that while the statute prohibited removal of a probationer during the probationary term except for "just cause," no such limitation applied where the appointing authority elects to dismiss an appointee at the expiration of the six-month probationary period. The court observed that the leading cases are in accord with its view. (These cases are annotated in 131 A. L. R. 383.) The general rule there stated (131 A. L. A. 397) is as follows:

Although the statutes and rules are by no means uniform with respect to the language used in providing for probationary periods for civil service appointees, there seems to be no conflict in the cases as to the non-applicability to probationers of removal provisions relating to persons in the classified service. . . . The courts have held that a

probationary appointee (assuming that he has been accorded such probation as he may be entitled to) may be summarily discharged or dismissed without an opportunity to defend himself at a hearing of any kind.

Promotion — Qualifications — Administrative Discretion. Administrative action by the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York in denying a library employee a certificate as chief librarian was upheld by the New York Supreme Court in *Application of Little*, 44 N. Y. S. (2d) 456 (Sp. Term). The fact that the petitioner had been an acting chief librarian for two years was held to entitle her to no credit, since the appointment was a provisional one, and under the civil service law could "not continue for a longer period than four months." Consequently, petitioner held the position in violation of law. "Any formulation of qualifications for a position in the civil service which provides for credit or benefit based upon the disregard of the provisions of the civil service law is contrary to public policy and is from its nature arbitrary and unlawful." The administrative decision that petitioner did not meet any of the other prescribed requirements was held not to be arbitrary; therefore "the courts should not interfere."

The rules and regulations adopted by the Board of Regents were deemed not to violate any constitutional prohibitions. The delegation of power from the Legislature to the Board was sufficiently definite. "It is not necessary or required that the Legislature lay down a definite, comprehensive rule or prescribe a specific rule of action," the court ruled. "A reasonable amount of discretion may be delegated to administrative officials."

Leave of Absence—Acceptance of New Position in Unclassified Service—Effect on Status in Classified Service. A civil service employee cannot, at one and the same time, be a member of the classified and unclassified service of the state. Consequently, a purported leave of absence from a classified position in order to accept a position in the unclassified service had the effect of terminating the employee's rights as a member of the classified service. This was the ruling in *State v. Hummel*, 51 N. E. (2d) 900 (Ohio), where the court declared:

A leave of absence properly granted to one in the classified service does not have the effect of taking the person to whom such leave is granted out of the employ of the state or out of the classified service. . . . Such person is not separated from the classified service by mere leave of absence, and although his actual service and compensation are suspended during the continuance of such leave, he is for every other purpose and in all other respects subject to the statutory provisions applicable to employees in actual service. . . . The rights and obligations of and restrictions upon persons in the classified service are wholly

inconsistent with the rights and obligations of and restrictions upon persons in the unclassified service. As we read and construe the code an employee in the classified service upon acceptance of an appointment to an elective office in the unclassified service thereby terminates his status as an employee in the classified service. If such employee at some future date desires to re-enter the classified service, he must submit himself to a competitive examination. . . .

Since the relator improperly re-entered the classified service without a re-examination he could lawfully be discharged without a hearing.

Collective Bargaining—Federal Employee Association—Status as “Labor Organization.” In ruling that the Railway Mail Association, a fraternal organization of United States civil service employees, is not a labor organization, and therefore not subject to the provisions of the New York Civil Rights Law forbidding discrimination by labor organizations in admitting members, the New York Supreme Court relied heavily on the proposition that civil service employee groups cannot engage in collective bargaining, and that they, therefore, do not come within the definition of “labor organization” in the Civil Rights Law. (*Railway Mail Assn. v. Murphy*, 44 N. Y. S. [2d] 601 [Sup. Ct., Sp. Term]). In the course of a long opinion discussing the nature of public employment, as distinguished from private employment, the court said:

Civil service employees of the United States are protected from summary removal except for cause. . . . No such safeguards surround the industrial worker. . . . To tolerate or recognize any combination of civil service employees of the government as a labor organization or union is not only incompatible with the spirit of democracy, but inconsistent with every principle upon which our government is founded. Nothing is more dangerous to public welfare than to admit that hired servants of the state can dictate to the government the hours, the wages and conditions under which they will carry on essential services vital to the welfare, safety and security of the citizen. . . . Collective bargaining has no place in government service. The employer is the whole people. It is impossible for administrative officials to bind the government of the United States or the State of New York by any agreement made between them and representatives of any union.

(*Editor's Note.* The court seems to ignore that portion of the definition of a labor organization in Section 43 of the Civil Rights Law which defines it as an organization for “dealing with employers concerning grievances, terms or conditions of employment, or of other mutual aid or protection.” This definition does not require the right to strike, or the right to compel government concessions, as a prerequisite to the existence of a labor organization. Federal government agencies “negotiate” constantly on personnel questions with employee organizations, as do state and municipal agencies.)

Abolition of Position—“Useless” Positions—Materiality of Motive for Abolition. An administrative abolition of a useless position was upheld by the New Jersey Supreme Court in *Kessel v. Civil Service Commission*, 34 Atl. (2d) 131 (N. J.). Said the court:

The challenged action was not merely tolerable. No one has been appointed to the position vacated by prosecutor. The position is no longer in existence; and there is no suggestion that the public interest has been thereby prejudiced. . . . That considerations other than economy have entered into the abolition of an office or position is of no consequence, if, in fact, the place is in no sense essential to the public service. The motive is immaterial if the office or position is useless.

In *Salisky v. City of Garfield*, 34 Atl. (2d) 884 (N. J.), the court upheld the abolition of positions by a city council for reasons of economy. “In the absence of a clear showing of bad faith we may not substitute our judgment concerning the conduct of municipal affairs for that of those officials charged by law with that duty. . . . Dismissal and demotions of public employees for reasons of economy and efficiency are entirely proper.”

Abolition of Positions—Legislative Action—Judicial Review. In the absence of constitutional prohibition, a state legislature's control over civil service positions is generally free from judicial restraints. This fundamental proposition was affirmed in *People v. Barrett*, 51 N. E. (2d) 795 (Ill.), where the court ruled: “The Legislature can change the names of positions and nullify civil service without cause or reason. It is not restrained from abolishing a position it has created, either by eliminating it entirely or by changing its name.”

A legislative appropriation of salary for a clerk in the office of the Attorney General, and a failure to appropriate money for the position of telephone operator, was held to effectuate an abolition of the latter position, formerly governed by civil service rules, and a creation of a new non-civil service post. Plaintiff, a civil service telephone operator, could not, therefore, complain of her ouster, for, as the court said: “Plaintiff's rights were attached to the civil service post and since it has been displaced by a non-civil service post those rights have been lost. We cannot declare the act of the Legislature invalid because of individual injustice, if it had authority to act.”

Suspension—Seniority—Use of “City Service” by State Employees—Laches. Suspended employees of the New York State Transit Commission, whose duties were concerned with transportation wholly within the city of New York, whose salaries were paid out of the city treasury, and who were au-

thorized to join a city pension system, were held to have been engaged in "city" rather than "state" service, so that their service with the Transit Commission could not be used in determining seniority of employees of the State Department of Taxation and Finance. (*Bacom v. Reavy*, 45 N. Y. S. [2d] 85 [Sup. Ct., Sp. Term].) The court relied on *Matter of Horn v. Gillespie*, 267 N. Y. 333, 196 N. E. 205, 207. However, a contrary rule on substantially the same issue was established in *Powers v. LaGuardia* involving the application of the state salary classification law to employees of the Transit Commission. (See *Public Personnel Review*, January, 1944, p. 48.) This case was recently affirmed by the Appellate Division.

With respect to a collateral contention in the case of *Bacom v. Reavy* that the petitioning employees (seeking reinstatement on the basis of seniority) were guilty of laches, the court said:

On the general defense of laches it may well be said that petitioners were under no duty to act until they themselves were directly and vitally affected. It can hardly be good public policy to require an employee of the state to keep one eye on his work and another constantly cast on administrative transfers to see whether any of his rights may be infringed upon. Petitioners were not vitally or directly affected until they were actually suspended, and within an appropriate period thereafter they acted.

Suspension—Illegality—Right to Salary During Suspension. The general rule that a public officer has the right to the salary of his office during a period of unlawful discharge, regardless of compensation earned elsewhere during that time, is unavailable to one holding the position of "cottage counsellor" at a state industrial school, since he is an "employee," rather than an "officer," and the rule is inapplicable to employees. (*Corpman v. McDevitt*, 142 Pac. [2d] 383 [Colo.].) The gist of the Court's ruling follows:

There is a distinction between an officer and an employee. The term "office" implies a delegation of a portion of the sovereign power to, and the possession of it by, the person filling the office. The term "employment" does not comprehend a delegation of any part of the sovereign authority, or authorize the exercise of any sovereign power or any prescribed independent authority of a governmental nature.

(*Editor's Note.* In some jurisdictions the courts have held that one illegally discharged from his position—whether an "officer" or "employee"—is entitled to the salary he would have received during the period of discharge. Other jurisdictions allow only the difference between his public salary and the pay and earnings secured elsewhere during the discharge period. A number of courts distinguish as does the Colorado court between the salary payable by virtue of the office and the salary provisions for employments to general positions. See 53 A. L. R. 595; 93 A. L. R. 1076.)

Removal—Injunction Against Hearing—Reinstatement. An employee who is brought up on charges for removal may not enjoin a hearing of the charges and compel reinstatement to his position before the charges have been heard and determined. So the New York court (Appellate Division) ruled in the unusually interesting case of *Smith v. Hughes*, 266 N. Y. App. Div. 1066.

The petitioner was appointed in 1933 by the county clerk as a special deputy clerk and assigned to handle motor vehicle licenses in the Huntington office. He had passed an examination conducted by the State Civil Service Commission specifically for that position. In 1943, the county clerk, endeavoring to reorganize his office, sought to detail the petitioner to work in the main office at Riverhead to perform similar duties and such other occasional duties as might become necessary. The county clerk also thought that it was advisable that persons employed in his office should all be familiar with and able to perform more than the particular duties the employees had theretofore performed, so that they would be familiar with all types of duties performed by the county clerk's office and thus be in a position to substitute one for another, or relieve one another, as occasion might require.

The employee, however, refused to report to duty at the main office although instructed to do so, claiming that the county clerk had no right to transfer or assign him elsewhere than in the Huntington office. The county clerk preferred charges and set a date for hearing. The petitioner, instead of appearing at the hearing, sought to restrain the county clerk from hearing the charges, claiming that the county clerk was deliberately seeking to remove him, and claiming the right to reinstatement in his position at Huntington.

At Special Term the court ordered the reinstatement of the petitioner to his position at Huntington, upholding the contentions of the employee. The Appellate Division, however, reversed the decision on the ground that the employee's proceeding to compel his reinstatement on the ground that he had been illegally removed by the county clerk was premature and therefore dismissed the petitioner's application for a mandamus order. The Appellate Division did not pass on the merits of any contemplated removal of the petitioner or the right of the county clerk to assign him to the main office at Riverhead, but based its ruling solely on the ground that an employee has no right to enjoin the department head from hearing removal charges.

Removal—Review by Civil Service Commission—Statutory Interpretation. Under the county

civil service law of the state of Minnesota, only members of the classified service are entitled to a review by the civil service commission prior to removal. Special provision is made permitting incumbents with less than five years experience to become members of the classified service after taking appropriate qualifying examinations. (Those with more than five years experience are automatically covered into the classified service.) In *State v. County of St. Louis*, 12 N. W. (2d) 193 (Minn.), it was held that incumbents who had not been given the qualifying examinations, and therefore had not become members of the classified service, were not entitled to seek a review by the Civil Service Commission of the departmental removal proceedings. The legislature, the court held,

failed to mention the procedure to be followed for the removal or suspension of employes of the group to which relator belonged. The court is asked in this proceeding to supply the omitted legislation. Courts cannot amend a statute under the pretext of construction. . . . Relator was appointed to his position by the county board. Unless the civil service act, directly or by implication, provides otherwise, he was subject to removal by that board. . . . A statute will not be construed as abrogating a rule of the common law unless such intention is clearly expressed.

Removal — Statutory Requirements — Rights Prior to Effective Date of Statute. Where a civil service statute specifically declares that after its effective date removals shall be permitted only in the manner prescribed therein, a removal without regard to the statutory provisions was proper where such removal occurred after the enactment of the law, but before its effective date. (*McCutcheon v. MacNeill*, 28 S. E. [2d] 469 [Ga.].) The statute providing that removals shall be made in a certain manner after its effective date "can mean nothing else than that before the effective date of the act removals may be made under the previously existing laws."

Removal—Judicial Review—Arbitrary Administrative Action. In a sweeping denunciation of arbitrary removals by administrative authorities, the New York Supreme Court has applied the judicial review provisions of the New York Civil Service Law by ordering the reinstatement of an

employee discharged on a "mere pretext," without "credible evidence." (*Lanzer v. Moran*, 44 N. Y. S. [2d] 359 [Sup. Ct., Sp. Term].) Believing that Section 22 of the civil service law permits direct appeal to the court by discharged employees, the court said:

The obvious intent of such law . . . is to protect civil service employees of the State of New York, however humble their status might be, or however exalted their positions, from harsh, precipitate and arbitrary action by superiors. . . . The legislature . . . placed a tight rein over acts and conduct of dictatorial, tyrannical and concealed persons and administrative boards, and served notice on such persons and boards to exercise fair play, good sense and impartiality, in passing judgment on charges against subordinate employees. The legislature deemed it essential that the civil service commission should not be the sole and exclusive agency to hear appeals from administrative boards.

The petitioner, a state parole officer, had been discharged on notice that the Board of Parole proposed "to take disciplinary action against him." But, stated the court, the "statute is clear that if removal from office is contemplated, the notice served must so state. Disciplinary action is vastly different in scope than removal from office. The words are not synonymous." The court felt that the charges (improperly submitting expense vouchers on 17 different occasions in 1935 and 1939; submission of false reports; violation of office regulations by teaching at college when supposedly on duty) were "trivial, trumped up, frivolous, false and untrue." The court made much of the fact that petitioner was not afforded a hearing to refute the charges against him. "While it is true he was not strictly entitled to such hearing by law, nevertheless, since the result of sustaining the charges would be to brand him as a petty thief, ordinary decency, if not law, would prompt any unbiased person to at least permit an accused to confront in open hearing the witnesses against him."

(*Editor's Note.* While the indignation of the learned court may have been justifiably aroused by the speciousness of the removal charges, many of them relating to matters over five years old, we believe the court's interpretation of the extent of judicial review authorized by the statute is questionable.)

BOOK REVIEWS

Vocational Interests of Men and Women. Edward K. Strong. Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California. 1943. 746p. \$6.50.

Vocational Interests of Men and Women presents a summary of the results of nineteen years of research by the author in attempting to measure occupational and other interests, and to use such measures of interest as a practical tool in vocational guidance. The book contains 27 chapters with numerous tables and diagrams. The chapters are grouped under seven parts. The preface contains a good summary of the book.

The Strong Vocational Interest Blank is probably the best known and most widely used instrument of its type in existence. In summary description of it the author says:

The test has been devised as an aid to young men and women in making their occupational choices. It is a measure of one's interests interpreted in terms of thirty-nine occupations for men and in terms of eighteen occupations for women. It is not a measure of specific or general abilities. Such abilities should be determined by other means and considered together with interest ratings in determining a person's vocational choice.

The test consists of four hundred items. Persons tested respond by drawing a circle to indicate whether they like, dislike, or are indifferent to each item. One hundred items concern occupations. In addition, there are lists of school subjects, lists of activities, and of peculiarities of people. The last part of the blank calls for an estimate of one's abilities and characteristics. There is one form for use by males and another form for females.

The principal use of the vocational interest blank, according to the author, is as an aid in vocational guidance for young men and women who have fundamental desires to discover the occupations for which their interests best fit them. The author also mentions the possible use of the vocational interest blank in educational guidance, in the selection of employees, and as an aid in admitting students to professional schools. As a selection instrument, Strong reports that he has received information indicating that the blank is proving satisfactory as an aid in selecting candidates for selling. The evidence, however, that the Strong Vocational Interest Blank is a valuable

selection tool is meager. It is primarily a vocational advisement aid. Other investigators have found interest items in some instances to be of value as selection instruments, but such items are standardized on the basis of differentiating degrees of probable success in an occupation. Strong makes no claim that the vocational interest blank will differentiate within the occupation, and has not indicated that he intends to standardize the blank for this purpose.

Strong believes his test is useful in that it makes it possible for young people to indicate their liking for specific activities, one at a time. This they can do without detailed knowledge of the various occupations. He points out, however, that one should not blindly accept interest test results until he has ascertained what is required in the indicated occupation, and has determined that he has the other necessary factors.

The author states his belief that interests are not a separate psychological entity, but merely one of several aspects of behavior. The measurement of one's specific interest in an occupation, he feels, is not sufficient, and, therefore, one should obtain a knowledge of several hundred likes and dislikes, so that the patterns of many interests may be considered. He makes no claim that his interest test is a measure of ability, and specifically suggests that degrees of ability should be measured. There are investigators, however, who believe that abilities can be measured indirectly through the use of interest items. Success in an occupation, according to Strong, requires necessary knowledge, necessary ability, necessary personality, and necessary physique, in addition to interest.

Strong briefly reviews objective tests of interest, i.e., the information test, free association test, and the Burtt learning and distraction tests. He also reviews briefly subjective tests of interest which rely upon the person's own statement of his particular interest—such as first choice, rank order of preference, rating scale, and the inventory.

Evidence is presented which shows that interests, as measured by the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, are highly permanent. The correlation between occupational interest scores, when there is an interval of ten years between test and re-

tests, is .75. It is further indicated that interests are apparently little influenced by vocational training or actual experience in an occupation, and that occupational interest scores do not increase with occupational experience. In fact, in general, they actually decrease slightly. Ample data are presented to show that many young persons possess clear-cut interests prior to job or broad educational experience.

The possibility of classification of occupations from the standpoint of vocational interests is explored. By finding the inter-correlations among interest scores for occupations, and by the use of the factor analysis technique, the author presents valuable findings which should be carefully reviewed by persons who are concerned with occupational classification. Obviously the classification of occupations on the basis of interest factors is only one aspect of such classification, but it is one which certainly deserves consideration.

In addition to the development of scores for specific occupations, and for groups of occupations, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank can be scored for occupational level. Strong believes that interest scores for occupational level and intelligence test scores are two measures which are of considerable value, since one should have both the intellectual level in the field, as well as interest in the activities characteristic of the level.

Scales have also been developed for the Strong Vocational Interest Blank to show masculinity and femininity. The author believes that counselors should consider a low MF score by a man as a danger signal, unless he has significantly high scores on those occupations which correlate negatively with MF. The difficulty may be passive homosexuality, or emotional upset of some sort. Lists of activities which are generally preferred by men are given, as well as the activities preferred by females. Men generally prefer mechanical, scientific, physically strenuous, legal, political, or sales activities. Women tend to prefer musical, artistic, literary, clerical, and teaching activities. There are also differentiations between males and females regarding preference for certain forms of entertainment and likes and dislikes for certain kinds of people.

In developing the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, the point of reference is represented by individuals in the same occupational level. That is, the interests of a person in a professional occupation are differentiated from those in professional occupations generally, rather than from the interests of persons in all types of work. Having the reference point restricted to the occupational level produces greater differentiation among occupations than having a more general reference point.

The occupations covered in the Strong Vocational Interest Blank are primarily those in the professional groups. Since the bulk of the population is employed in non-professional occupations, it would seem that from the standpoint of maximum usefulness, further work in the skilled and semi-skilled levels should be undertaken. Such an extension of the use of the test presents difficulties in obtaining adequate samples of workers who are sufficiently accustomed to filling in questionnaires of this type. Considerable statistical evidence and statistical method are given, and the author finds that a group of from 300 to 500 is needed for each occupation for which a scale is developed.

The book is a valuable piece of work which should be read, at least in part, by persons in the personnel and vocational guidance field, and should be read in detail by those who have problems in regard to the measurement of interest.

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Democracy Against Unemployment. William H. Stead. Harper and Bros. New York City. 1942. 280 p. \$3.00.

Mr. Stead is concerned in this treatise with public policy rather than economic theory. He is particularly convinced of two related propositions: "first, that important policy decisions affecting our economic and political life must be made in the coming months and years; and second, that these decisions will be made, not by economists in academic convocations, but by the leaders of business, of labor, and of political life reacting to the common sense convictions of the majority of the people who are the rulers of a democracy." He emphasizes that one of the first problems to be attacked is the unemployment of "capable man power." He believes unemployment to be the greatest enemy of democracy, and stresses the importance of adjusting our ways of making a living so that mankind may have greater assurance of freedom from want. He grants that some instances of unemployment are due to human frailties or personal failures. Even with these factors removed, the problem of failure to use available productive capacity—material and human—remains with us.

Mr. Stead suggests these practical tests of the working effectiveness of an economic system: "first, the degree to which the system encourages the development of productive capacity . . . , secondly, the degree to which such productive capacity is utilized, and finally the equity with which

the benefits of such production are distributed to meet human needs and desires." He gives private, competitive capitalism an "A" rating in the first count, productive capacity. In the matter of full utilization of potential productive capacity, however, the modern capitalistic system reveals amazing weakness. He includes charts that show vast unutilized capacities of men and machines.

Our present economic system also gets a poor rating in the third test, equitable distribution. The author makes clear that "equitable distribution should not be defined in terms of *equal* distribution of purchasing power. Human beings are not equal, either in their capacities and contributions or in their desires and needs. Democracy must assure equality of opportunity and not equality of results." He suggests that equity in the distribution of purchasing power may need to be defined as a return which approximately measures the value of an individual's contribution to productive activity.

Mr. Stead points out, however, that normal differences in earning capacity should not be accentuated by privileges for the few and restrictions for the many created by legal and economic institutions which interfere with the working of a free market. In other words, the author concludes that the long-run growth in unemployment is due fundamentally to an uneconomic distribution of purchasing power which tends to hold down the effective demand for goods and services and thus prevents the full use of potential productive capacity of both machines and manpower. Factors which contribute to unemployment, such as seasonality in industry, cyclical changes in the volume of business, labor market frictions, changes in tastes and styles, and the frequent demise of business and industrial establishments, are identified and analyzed.

In part two of his book, Mr. Stead discusses how the causes of unemployment can be attacked and remedied. Under these remedies he discusses industrial planning, government planning, organizing the labor market, social insurance, wartime controls, and post-war readjustments.

The author focuses attention on the complexity and interdependent character of economic relationships. Short of complete monopoly, action by one concern is necessarily conditioned by similar action on the part of competing concerns. Industrial management can exercise effective control over only a limited number of the conditions causing unemployment. No single industry operates independently of others, and consequently even the best planning job done by concerted action within an industry cannot achieve stability. In addition to its limitations for arranging employ-

ment stability, Mr. Stead stresses the dangers to general consumer welfare which are inherent in the development of machinery for joint action by all units of an industry.

Mr. Stead believes that a realistic appraisal of current trends, both in the United States and abroad, leads to the conclusion that the choice is between two alternatives: (a), an unplanned, uncoordinated industrial activity, partly competitive and partly monopolistic; or, (b), an increase in government planning and control. He thinks government can contribute to the orderly reduction of the fluctuations in employment.

One of the first requisites of intelligent government action is the development of a research and planning agency of sufficient prestige and competence to command general public support, and thus to exercise influence in legislation and government policy. At the time of writing he saw the essential beginnings of such a planning agency in the since expired National Resources Planning Board and in the various state, county, and municipal planning boards, which have increased in number and in effectiveness in recent years. One of the major functions of such planning agencies is to provide a summary of pertinent data for the consideration of legislative and other policy making groups. A second major function should be the promotion of basic research, private and public. Such research and planning agencies should serve as clearing houses of information on employment stabilization techniques.

In part three of his study, Mr. Stead further considers his thesis that the growing trend toward an unbalanced market situation is occasioned by maldistribution of income. He discusses the steps that must be taken to change the basic difficulty, and calls attention to the growing tendency of the lower two-thirds of the income groups to seek governmental action for improvement of their economic well-being. Government is seen as necessarily assuming increasing responsibility for balancing bargaining powers, for shifting the controls from private concentration and monopoly to government, and for building up lower incomes to a more equitable level. Progress in these directions has been made under the New Deal, he believes, but with reservations as to the planning and management of some of the administrative programs.

Much more needs to be done to bring about an effective distribution of purchasing power and full use of productive capacity. Voluntary readjustments made by business alone will be too slow and too limited in scope to secure the necessary balances in the economic system. It is necessary not only to have governmental planning to achieve

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economic objectives, but to extend certain types of governmental control in order to correct inequalities and to secure maximum efficiency and balance in the economic system. To these ends Mr. Stead considers four aspects of public policy: tax programs, government subsidy of low income groups, wage control policy, and international trade policy.

The author presents most illuminating material on each of these questions. As an illustration, he points out that the rate paid in most state and local taxes remains constant whether the income is \$500 or over \$20,000 a year. He also stresses that in the long run the bulk of funds for effecting economic balance and security must come from taxation. It is essential that tax structure itself be streamlined to contribute to the gradual redistribution of purchasing power which he believes essential to the achievement of full use of our expanding productive capacity.

Mr. Stead closes his treatise on the theme he emphasizes throughout: that steps must be taken to assure economic security and stability, if we wish to maintain social and political democracy. He points out that a new democratic world order is important to the United States, as well as to the rest of the world, and that this order can be built only on a sound international economy. He believes, in view of the vigorous history of our democracy, that the changes necessary to such economic stability and world order can and will be taken within the democratic pattern. A book important for every one interested in preserving our democracy!

ELLA WEINFURTH REED

American Public Welfare Association
Chicago, Illinois

Wage Rates and Living Costs in a War Economy.

Maurice S. Brody. University of Chicago School of Business, Studies in Business Administration, Vol. XIII, No. 3. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 1943. 38p. \$1.00.

In a monograph of fewer than forty pages Mr. Brody has presented the causes for wartime inflation and what to do about it. The place of cost of living pay adjustments, as well as the meaning of parity and subsidies, are outlined in this small work. Although it would puncture many fine-sounding prejudices and end some interesting and violent debates, it would be a fine thing if this monograph were made compulsory reading for congressmen, editorial writers, and all those who solve our economic ills in smoking cars and assorted bars.

A war period is an inflationary period. This may be demonstrated by historical review of the

economic environment of other wars as well as by analysis of the inevitable effect of war on a civilian economy. The factors which contribute to inflation in wartime are many and inter-related; but the most significant of these are: a decreasing supply of consumer goods caused by concentration on war production, destruction of production capacity, and generally rising costs of production; and, on the other side of the economic picture, an increase in consumer demands occasioned by increased purchasing power and need for more food and clothing for a larger working force and for the military.

As prices go up and supplies of goods shrink, black markets come into being, and each group attempts to avoid its share of the sacrifice in terms of the depressed standard of living which is called for by war. Workers in manufacturing plants use strikes, threats of strikes, and cost of living figures to keep their incomes at a point which enables them to avoid drastic reductions in living standards. Farmers generally find their incomes tied to manufacturing wages through the medium of parity and are thus able to keep pace with any rise in the cost of living. Caught between these favored groups are government employees, white collar workers, and those on fixed incomes. In addition, there are segments of the population living at substandard levels to which each new rise in the cost of commodities means a still lower standard of living. Each such rise also brings into being a new group which is forced to exist at substandard levels.

What then is to be done about the situation? Most important is holding total expendable income at present levels. This means that wage rates cannot be based on living costs, nor can any other criterion be set up which would allow widespread increases in wages. Only wage earners below the level of subsistence should be allowed any preferential treatment in this regard. Taxes must be increased and war bond purchases encouraged. The parity formula must not be disturbed to allow a rise in farm prices on which manufacturing wage earners could base a claim for higher wages. Finally, governmental subsidies should be paid to producers to protect the profit margins of those who would be forced out of the market by effective price controls.

Here is a program based on a factual analysis of the economic implications of war. It is devoid of emotion and political argument, but it is convincing. If we would avoid economic chaos, we had better heed it.

ROBERT I. BIREN

Public Administration Service
Chicago, Illinois

Management of Manpower. Asa S. Knowles and Robert D. Thompson. The Macmillan Co. New York. 1943. 248p. \$2.25.

One of the outstanding problems facing management today is the effective use of manpower. Mechanical problems of production have largely been conquered, but the effective handling of workers still baffles many executives, foremen, and supervisors who deal directly with the workers. This book is a part of a larger volume, *Industrial Management*, and is published separately for those whose job it is to devote primary attention to everyday employee problems in factory, workshop, and office. It is not intended to be a complete treatment of the field of industrial personnel administration.

The book, which is well organized, discusses, with respect to selected topics, principles and practices that have proved effective in the development of industrial employee management. The topics treated are: morale, safety and health, selection and training, motion study, time study, job evaluation, employee compensation, and merit rating. Brief and instructional in method, the book enumerates alternatives and gives rather specific directions for the use of procedures described. In review, several highlights of the treatment may be mentioned.

With regard to morale, the need is stressed for a sound organization built with an underlying co-operative spirit that gives the organization vitality. Emphasis is placed on the contribution that intelligent leadership and a policy of fair human relations, with the proper incentives, will contribute to efficient operation. Morale, it is suggested, has to be fostered intelligently with an understanding of the principles involved.

The treatment of safety programs is broken down into its two general divisions—physical facilities and education of the employees. Safety, in this analysis, also involves the provision of protection for the plant itself and prevention of sabotage. Emphasis is placed on the need for an employee health program with plant clinic and health services being used to keep workers in good health. An appendix gives special consideration to factors of plant layout in relation to safety.

The discussion of testing for selection, placement, and guidance clearly points out the value of the use of sound testing techniques, although there is not enough detail on the difficulties of finding sources of supply of labor in present-day tight labor markets. Training is well analyzed and each step necessary to establish an adequate training program is outlined, special attention being given to the training of women for factory work. Motion study, while treated separately, is

stressed as a necessary part of an adequate training program.

Motion study, as applied to the worker, gives management information for better employee training, a more equitable wage program, and increased output at lower costs. Some of the better known techniques of the study of motion economy are reviewed, and their relation to cost control is outlined. Motion study has some specific limitations, as in plants with high overhead and low labor cost, with regard to occasional jobs, and where the cost of making the study exceeds the possible amounts to be saved. A valuable contribution to a good safety program, it is pointed out, can be made by the proper use of motion study in establishing safe working practices. An appendix examines particularly the contributions to plant layout which can arise from motion study.

Motion and time study go hand-in-hand. Motion study frequently disregards time elements and emphasizes methods of simplification and improvement. Time study is commonly regarded in American industry as synonymous with the procedure of rate-setting, in which industrial operations are timed and systematized and standard times set for their performance. Time study is used, however, in a much broader sense by industrial psychologists. Time study has been a source of irritation among industrial workers because foremen have not understood the procedures used in arriving at rates of pay and unions have not been encouraged to cooperate in setting rates. The need of training in worker understanding and union cooperation in establishing rates of pay is very important.

It is recognized by progressive management and labor unions that decisions in pay matters can be made intelligently only when definite facts are known about the job. Job evaluation can be used in a large or small plant, and for all positions from laborer to president. Furthermore, it is a valuable aid to better industrial relations. Basically, it is the analysis of the factors comprising each job, so that all jobs are paid for according to their relative difficulties. In developing a job evaluation program, a committee representing management, supervision, the personnel department, engineering and factory superintendents, and foremen, together with key workers and union representatives, should be formed. A number of the methods of factor comparison and evaluation plans are reviewed.

Merit rating is defined as a system for discovery and classification of the individual differences among employees, while job evaluation is the analysis of the job itself to learn what it requires and its relative worth in comparison with other

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jobs in the plant. In developing an employee rating program the committee procedure is recommended, and stress is laid on the point that training of both the raters and the employees as to methodology, uses, and objectives of the rating system is necessary. The relatively new developments in the rating of supervisors, including the difficulties encountered, are assayed.

In the authors' formulation the total wages a man receives are equal to a "basis of pay" multiplied by a "rate." The "basis of pay" is some measure of his work. The "rate" is the worth of the unit measure selected. In discussing wages these factors need to be kept distinct. Incentive plans, the authors find, have been an important factor, along with improved production methods, in increasing industrial production. The Halsey Plan, the Gantt Task and Bonus System, and the Bedaux System are reviewed and compared.

Texts on industrial personnel, such as this condensed but thorough manual, give public personnel officers opportunities for insights into their own work. The differences in emphasis in the two related fields are commentaries upon the essential differences in points of view and the unessential differences in the institutionalizing of personnel work in private and public employment. Perhaps the greatest value to the public personnel officer of a work of this sort is the implicit evidence it presents of the dollar and cents worth of extensive, elaborate personnel programs.

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BOOK NOTES

Health Education on the Industrial Front. The 1942 Health Education Conference of the New York Academy of Medicine. Columbia University Press. New York. 1943. 63p. \$1.25.

This collection of conference papers by specialists in industrial medicine, nutrition, and safety education explores the tasks of keeping a working force fit under war conditions and looks toward the continuing problems of employee health and safety. Attention is directed in the individual articles to the special health problems resulting from wartime industrialization; the state of knowledge regarding employee nutrition; the opportunities for detection and control of employee disease as part of a public health program, as well as for employee health; the types and significance of characteristic employee (and management) mental health problems; and the methods of educating management and employ-

ees in matters of industrial safety and the avoidance of accidents. It may be noted that the article on nutrition includes a bibliography of more than twenty items; that the article on mental problems includes a simple classification and description of types of mental cases, along with suggestions for their medical treatment; and that the article on safety education contains a listing of numerous possible items for inclusion in employee safety programs.

Man-Power Mobilisation for Peace. International Labour Office. Montreal, Canada. 1943. 78p. \$.25.

When I Get Out Will I Find a Job? Maxwell S. Stewart. Public Affairs Committee, Inc. New York. 1943. 31p. \$.10.

As their titles indicate, these two publications are both concerned with the problems to be faced during demobilization and the steps to be taken to meet them. The first, *Man-Power Mobilisation for Peace*, discusses some of the basic employment changes taking place during the war and suggests their implications for postwar employment planning. Examples are taken from what has happened or what is proposed in Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, Union of South Africa, and the United States—democratic countries in which the situation will have a number of common features. The second, *When I Get Out Will I Find a Job?* is based in large part on *Demobilization and Readjustment*, a Report of the Conference on Postwar Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel, published by the National Resources Planning Board. The author outlines the problems to be faced in the United States and discusses actions that private industry, agriculture, labor, state and local governments, as well as the federal government, must take to insure an adequate demobilization program. Suggested provisions for veterans to meet the problems of this period, such as separation pay, social security, unemployment compensation, education and training, and job placement, are additional subjects dealt with in this publication.

Current American Government: Wartime Developments. L. Vaughn Howard and Hugh A. Bone. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York. 1943. 357p. \$2.75.

Wartime Government in Operation. William H. Nicholls and John A. Vieg. The Blakiston Company, Philadelphia. 1943. 107p. \$1.50.

These two works undertake the difficult task of catching between book covers the tremendously

important, but constantly accumulating events and arrangements of wartime government and administration. The book listed first is considerably broader in scope, being intended for use as a text, or supplementary text, for courses in government. In descriptive fashion, by marshalling information from current official documents, newspapers, and periodicals, the Howard-Bone book gives an account of most aspects of current American government, including developments regarding civil liberties, aliens, industrial mobilization, and military organization, as well as the usual major topics. The Nicholls-Vieg book sets a narrower range—the review of wartime policy and administration in relation to manpower and food—but it is analytical and critical in treatment, as well as thorough in description. Both books accomplish their goals; both suffer from the apparent necessity of going to press in the midst of the events treated.

Personnel Management in War Industries.

Bureau of Industrial Relations. Bulletin No. 14. University of Michigan Press. Ann Arbor, Michigan. 1943. 170p. \$3.00.

The report of a conference of executives of fifty companies in the Detroit area sponsored by the issuing Bureau, this publication summarizes the proceedings of a series of discussions on personnel management in war industries. The discussions, which were led by selected executives from the group, are reported in accordance with a standard pattern whereby, in series, one of industry's major personnel problems is outlined and suggestions are presented for its solution. Several of the topics, either in whole or in part, may be found on the programs of conferences on public personnel problems today. Among those which should be the most fruitful with respect to their applicability to public personnel administration are: "Filling Manpower Requirements," "Selection and Induction of New Employees," and "Wage and Salary Determination."

Industrial Hygiene and Plant Efficiency Through Good Lighting. Division of Labor Standards,

United States Department of Labor. 1943. 51p. Free.

This booklet presents the principles of good lighting practice, the vital relation between lighting and plant safety, the salient differences between good and poor illumination, and some of the precautions which must be observed before adequate and suitable lighting can be achieved and maintained. Included in the publication is a table of recommended minimum standards of illumination for industrial interiors. The publication is a reprint of American Recommended Practice of Industrial Lighting, approved by the American Standards Association.

Careers in Public Relations: the New Profession.

Averell Broughton. E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc. New York. 1943. 255p. \$2.00.

Addressed in style and method of presentation to young persons who may be thinking about selecting a vocation, this book by a consulting practitioner in the field of public relations transmits a fair amount of information regarding public relations work without becoming systematic or thorough in its analysis. The author is primarily interested in the role of planning the manipulation of mass attitudes for business and industrial concerns, and distinguishes public relations activity from advertising or publicity on the score that his profession takes a longer, and thus more cautious, view in plotting operations on the public mind, uses all media of influence, and more of the techniques of attitude analysis. Although primarily concerned with the politics of business and industry management, the author notes the development of publicity and public relations activity in government and devotes one chapter, among a series of chapters reporting interviews with successful public relations men, to governmental public relations, with emphasis on the public relations offices of the Army and Navy. In stating and reaffirming with variations the proposition that every executive is concerned with and must calculate his relations with various publics, the author, in his chatty manner, gives numerous insights into how such strategy is planned by specialists.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— WARTIME ASPECTS

30. Akerly, Harold E. **Personnel Policy in Wartime.** *The School Executive* 63 (2) October 1943: 27-28.—Blighted hopes and aspirations too often mark the literal and dogmatic application of civil service law, as many have seen and more have read. Yet civil service and tenure laws are usually a necessary protection against freebooters and scalawags. Readiness to accept the methods of industry is a sign of merit in the personnel administration in the Rochester schools. The use of fewer and better paid employees, or the recruitment of persons just graduating from high school or college are advocated policies. Fear of freezing in the inefficient has led to widespread employment of temporary "laborers" on hourly or daily rates to fill clerical and other positions. Analysis of all jobs and adoption of a schedule which provides a salary for each class is recommended. Handicapped persons are utilized. Increased living costs affect everyone and the cost of carrying lump sum or percentage increases clear to the top is negligible. Formulation of a plan for the return of service men and women into jobs commensurate with their development is suggested.—*John B. Steven.*

31. Bewkes, Eugene G. **Program for manpower utilization.** *Manpower Review* 10 (10) October, 1943: 4-5.—A 20 per cent increase in productivity is a reasonable possibility if we could move from misuse to better use of manpower. This is the equivalent of about 2 million new workers who could be realized through full utilization of our present labor force. The Bureau of Manpower Utilization has a two-fold program to cure the general situation of less than full utilization: (1) conduct a general publicity campaign, telling industry how to locate and cure trouble spots of poor utilization of labor; and (2) provide manpower utilization consultants for those industries whose problems are most pressing and complex. The Bureau has developed a procedure for locating obvious cases of misuse, of which the following are major symptoms: absenteeism, turnover, production lag, unusual recruitment difficulties, threatened strikes, serious accidents, and unbalanced Selective Service withdrawals. After these symptoms have been located the causes of the misuse must be determined; following this the plants whose needs are most critical are treated first. The Area Manpower Director contacts top management in one of the plants selected for attention, and, if the management is willing, a preliminary utilization survey is made

of all the possible causes of difficulty. The causes generally fall into four groups: plant conditions, production procedures, personnel policies, and out-of-plant factors. The manpower utilization consultant makes his preliminary survey by the use of a check list, locating the most probable reasons for under-utilization. If the preliminary survey indicates the need for more thorough analysis the consultant probes the areas of difficulty and acquaints management with the situation once the causes have been thoroughly understood. Suggestions concerning manpower utilization usually involve good management policy and good labor-management relations. Whenever these relations are found to be reasonably sound, good work morale is usual and under-utilization unlikely.—*Rita Davidson.*

32. Capp, Tracy. **The physically disabled and the war effort.** *The Social Service Review*. 17 (3) September, 1943: 320-27.—The first World War gave impetus to a rehabilitation program for disabled civilians. The present war has emphasized the opportunities for the handicapped in the course of solving our present production problem. Physically disabled persons are now recognized as a manpower factor; however, to provide properly for their employment adjustment, these persons must be given proper guidance, preparation for employment, and selective placement. The federal "Industrial Rehabilitation Act" of 1920, administered by the Vocational Rehabilitation Division of the United States Office of Education, was designed to accomplish this purpose. Lack of funds has limited this program, however. The rehabilitation concept adopted was to consider each person's problem as an individual one; to evaluate the person's capacities and needs; and after preparation and placement, to use a follow-up to determine the effectiveness of the service given. The present emergency has given the physically handicapped unusual job opportunities. Tentative conclusions reached are that such persons are just as efficient as normal workers. The great demand for workers is leading to the danger that the physically handicapped may be securing employment without guidance or special preparation. Because of financial limitations the program of physical restoration, basic for vocational rehabilitation, must be provided through other agencies, both public and private. In some cases, this limitation has resulted in hardship. The problem of rehabilitating the soldiers of the present war has been given to the Veterans' Administration. Here, too, physical care, training, and placement will be part of the program.—*Irving Gold.*

33. Donovan, Jeremiah J. **Wartime personnel practices in cities.** *Public Management* 25 (11) November, 1943: 327-28.—A meeting of public personnel officials, under the sponsorship of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, was recently held in St. Louis for the purpose of discussing their most pressing wartime problems, both in terms of current practice and in the evaluation of these practices for the future. Problems of layoff and reinstatement resulting from the return of personnel from military leave received the first consideration of the delegates, and major practices in this connection were reported by agencies at all levels of government. Among other immediate problems of personnel agency management discussed were the effects of the policies and program of the War Manpower Commission on state and local governments; wartime pay problems; building and maintaining employee morale; the development of effective certification policies; personnel agency fiscal management; promotion and transfer policies; and grievance and appeal procedures. In the final session the delegates' appraisal, in terms of the future, of the problems discussed at previous sessions brought out the need for redefining the relationships between public personnel officers and operating officials and also the need for developing adequate plans by which to anticipate peacetime adjustments.—*Barbara Brattin.*

34. Durand, John D. **The post-war employment of women in the United States.** *International Labour Review* XLVIII (6) December, 1943: 695-713.—To establish a statistical forecast on the number and age distribution of women likely to remain in the labor force after the war, an analysis was made of the actual increase in female employment during the period 1890-1943, and on that basis the anticipated, as well as the actual, female civilian labor force was charted for the period, April, 1940 to August, 1943. Instead of the anticipated increase of 900,000, an actual increase of about 3,300,000 was found, of which 2,400,000 were attributable to the war. Between April, 1940 and April, 1941 the number of women in the labor force decreased. Since April, 1942, however, the actual increase has exceeded the expected increase. Of this increase attributable to the war, approximately 1,300,000 women are engaged in agriculture, an occupation that will retain comparatively few women under normal conditions. The pre-war increase in female non-agricultural employment occurred principally in the 20-34 age group; and a steady decline characterized the group under 20, as well as that over 65. The war, however, has established an entirely different pattern, with the group under 20 contributing more than one-third of the war increase and the remainder coming mainly from the 35-54 group, with comparatively little from the 20-35 group—the principal contributors before the war. Increased employment for girls under 20 has resulted from two factors: earlier entrance into the labor market of those who normally would work; and employment of girls who normally would not have entered the labor force. From this latter group probably 200,000 to 400,000 will want to continue permanently; of the 20-34 age

group, a remainder of 100,000 from the war increase will be available after 1950. From the group aged 35 and over (war increase 300,000 to 500,000), the number retaining employment after 1950 will depend largely on job opportunities. By 1950 a total of 3,000,000 more women will probably be available for employment than in 1940, with 500,000 to 1,000,000 of these resulting from the war expansion. Probable distribution of this war residuum follows: 400,000 in the 20-29 age group; 100,000 in the 30-44 age group; and 500,000 in the age group of 45 and over. This latter group may present serious post-war employment problems unless employers, labor unions, and governmental agencies plan carefully and cooperate fully. Not only post-war employment conditions, but also population growth, family life, and other institutions may be profoundly affected by the present abnormal demand for the services of women. (The article contains charts and diagrams showing actual and expected female labor force by age-groups, and anticipated war-increase for each group as of 1950.)—*Alice E. Kennedy.*

35. Hathway, Marion. **Utilizing available and new personnel in meeting present and future demands for social workers.** *Compass* 24 (6) September, 1943: 7-10, 41-42.—Pressures of the present emergency have aggravated the shortage in social work personnel. In 1942, the forty-two accredited schools of social work showed a 14 per cent decrease in enrollment from 1941, and further decreases are expected. Schools of social work have added summer sessions and accelerated courses, but these methods are too new for adequate evaluation. Some professional groups and administrators recommend curriculum modification as a means of better meeting the urgent needs. If schools are to meet the increased training needs, outside aid, such as the federal aid to medical social work education, is necessary. Social work agencies can help meet the crisis by providing in-service training and educational leaves where feasible. The schools and two of the agencies administering the Social Security Act maintain relations for joint consideration of personnel matters, but the Red Cross and the USO have no such relations yet. Recruiting procedures may be modified to obtain competent personnel, but standards of professional workers and subprofessional aides must be well-defined. The National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel has gathered names of social workers, but the extent of its practical service cannot be evaluated now. Professional organizations can act as clearinghouses for urgent personnel requests and as recruiting agencies for social work education. Social services are not yet considered essential by the government. The number of social workers greatly exceeds the membership of the American Association of Social Workers, thus limiting its influence on standards, which are as a rule not well maintained by states recruiting for the beginning positions. A training plan must be devised to meet the needs of individuals employed at various levels in the profession. The profession rather than the schools should work out such a scheme under as unified a leadership as possible.—*John A. Ohlson.*

36. Howell, Leonard G. **Postwar planning—training for action.** *Public Management* 25 (11) November, 1943: 321-22.—Although municipal officials generally are agreed that postwar planning is desirable, not a great deal has been done as yet in the way of organizing communities to go about the task of doing the planning job. An experiment in this direction was recently conducted in Lansing, Michigan, by the American Society of Planning Officials under the joint sponsorship of the American Municipal Association, the Michigan Municipal League, and the Michigan State Planning Commission. Fifty-two representatives of the 26 Michigan cities with a population over 15,000 took part in the conference. The curriculum for the institute was outlined in considerable detail in a syllabus-notebook prepared by the staff of the American Society of Planning Officials and made available to all registrants. Lectures were based on planning problems peculiar to Michigan's communities, with discussions centered on such topics as methods of organizing a planning program, techniques for bringing plans and ideas together, methods of determining priorities, and the selection of projects which will promote the growth of cities. Through comparisons with procedures developed in other states, a picture of current techniques and administrative practice was obtained. From the point of view of municipal officials who attended the conference it was a great success, but the greater purpose which it served was to form a procedural basis on which to conduct a series of similar institutes in other parts of the country.—*Barbara Brattin.*

37. Mayo, Leonard W. **The manpower dilemma in social work in present jobs and in new fields.** *Compass* 24 (6) September, 1943: 3-7.—The manpower dilemma in social work is: how can we man our regular stations and at the same time serve the new outposts? The inadequate pre-war manpower supply is not helped by our inability to give accelerated training on a mass emergency basis. Estimates of the need for additional workers run to 15,000, of which 5,000 are needed for wartime agencies. A comprehensive definition of social work is necessary to identify its most essential wartime aspects. Social work is the business of preventing the breakdown of individuals, families, and communities and strengthening the ability of people to work out their own solutions and develop their own capacities. The categories of essential wartime services are: aid to armed forces and their families, to families of industrial workers, and to the general civilian population. The essential posts must be manned, though it requires sharing personnel among agencies, using part-time volunteers and less-qualified personnel under safeguards. Recruiting, therefore must be aggressive. Needs for service on the outposts of the present field must be met if social work is to grow to full usefulness. New developments in case work, group work, and community organization must be watched for such opportunities as personnel counseling in industry, group work for unions, public housing, relocation, and rehabilitation services. We must recognize the distinction between those services for which we are wholly

responsible and those in which our skills will be used under the administrative auspices of others.—*John A. Ohlson.*

38. Nourse, Louis M. **Wartime personnel problems in libraries.** *American Library Association Bulletin* 37 (12) December, 1943: 460-64.—A brief summary is made of the data collected by the American Library Association Personnel Division concerning Selective Service as it affects libraries: changes in recruitment policies, appointments, leaves of absence and retirements, resignations, hours of work, vacations, and salary trends. Some libraries have no definite policy; others have either formulated their own or follow the rules set up by the civil service jurisdiction, city administration, college, or board of education authority. The shortage of professional librarians and library clerks is acute. In an effort to alleviate this condition, newspapers and radio have been used in advertising for assistants. Wives of men in service, retired librarians, a greater number of Negroes and a very few Japanese-Americans have been employed. Changes in civil service examinations include modification or elimination of written tests and flexibility with regard to the time and place for holding examinations. New appointments in some libraries are made only for the duration and six months. In some cases it is impossible to maintain standards of education, experience, and age of entrance. Regulations against the employment of married women have been relaxed and retirements have been postponed. A few libraries have cancelled leaves of absence except for military service. Some colleges have cancelled sabbatical leave while others encourage leaves because of the drastic reduction in student enrollment. Libraries are compelled to develop more flexible policies with regard to the acceptance of resignations, since camp libraries, government positions, and defense industries cannot wait a full month for a professional librarian or two weeks for a clerk. In addition to government libraries, a few others have established a 48 hour week. Because of the accelerated program, some colleges have curtailed or split vacations. The increased cost of living and rising salaries in other fields have had their effect on library salaries. In many cases salaries have been increased; in others wartime salary bonuses or cost-of-living adjustments have been made. To obtain funds for salaries, which in wartime absorb more than the usual proportion of the budget, some librarians have left vacancies unfilled while others have reduced hours of service to enable the library to operate with a smaller staff.—*Marion Horton.*

39. Robinson, Mary. **Women workers in two wars.** *Monthly Labor Review* 57 (4) October, 1943: 650-71.—No exact comparison of women's employment in the two world wars can be given, but it is known that there were over 8.5 million woman workers at the time of the January, 1920, decennial census, and it seems safe to assume that this number will be doubled during the present war. It is estimated that in June, 1940 women constituted 11.2 million, or 23.5 per cent of all persons employed; by July, 1943, this proportion had risen to

16.7 million, or 31.3 per cent. By July, 1944, 1.3 million of the additional two million required to replace servicemen and step up munitions manufacture will be women. Trends indicate that womanpower is even more indispensable in winning the present war than the first one. Women are doing many skilled, difficult, and disagreeable, as well as dangerous and sometimes inappropriate, types of work. The Women's Bureau gives comparative figures for key industries regarding employment of women from Pearl Harbor up to June 1943. In ammunition manufacture, employment of women has mounted by many thousands until in March, 1943, women represented two-fifths of all factory employees in that field. In aircraft production, figures rose from 4,000 women one week before Pearl Harbor to more than 400,000 in June 1943. Steel mills, rubber industry, lumber, mining, and related industries, as well as producers of consumer goods, show increases in the use of women, even for highly technical work. The war has demonstrated a much wider range of occupational possibilities for women, and post-war planning must provide for their utilization. Vocational training has prepared countless women for technical positions; on the other hand, many new skills learned by servicemen will fit them for fields more closely allied with their war training. Both men and women will be absorbed by rapid expansion in new fields of consumer goods manufacture. Establishment of wage floors, ceilings on hours, and the eight-hour day, as well as social security protection, will help bolster women's status; collective bargaining is an effective tool in their hands. Twenty-five years ago there were numerous instances of inequality in pay for men and women doing equal work. In the present war, in aircraft and shipbuilding industries women are generally paid the same rates as men, and in other war industries four-fifths of the plants pay for the job regardless of sex. Decisions of the War Labor Board and the inclusion of equal-pay clauses in many labor contracts have laid the foundation for general adoption of this principle. With the coming of peace a large number of women will not continue in paid work, but the war has opened up opportunities and increased responsibilities placed upon women. In the transitional period, special consideration is imperative to prevent undue employment difficulties and unfair discrimination against them. (Tables show the trend in woman labor force from 1870 to 1940, estimates of civilian woman labor force, June, 1940, to 1943, and typical operations employing women in war production, June, 1943)—Margaret Bernauer.

40. Shartle, C. L. *The personnel aspect. Manpower Review* 10 (10) October, 1943: 6-8.—The primary concern of occupational analysis is the personnel aspect of manpower utilization rather than the industrial engineering phase. The preparation of manning tables and manpower analyses constitute two of the principal activities of occupational analysts in the field. The manning table is not a reporting device but an operating tool, and, if maximum results are to be obtained, there is need for participation in its use by such members of the plant as the foreman, superintendents, and

the staff of the personnel department. Manpower analysis is simply a further study of the personnel situation within a plant which has already prepared a manning table. The importance of manning tables and manpower analysis is not in their preparation but in the use which is made of the information obtained and the extent to which the findings result in improved employee utilization. Although occupational analysts have devoted a major portion of their time to these devices, there is also considerable activity in connection with the original phases of the utilization study—job and worker analysis. In addition to these functions, the occupational analysts assist in testing, in the use of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* as a means of promoting the use of job families, in training, and in giving technical assistance in the application of utilization aids. Besides these measures, two new tools are being developed for use in the War Manpower Commission and other governmental agencies: the first is a series of aids for the placement and utilization of discharged military personnel in civilian jobs; the second is the industry manning table, which is a composite of a number of plant manning tables and is used primarily as a guide in connection with manpower analysis. The same methods which are used in connection with the problems of utilization of personnel in private industry are applied to governmental jobs as well, and occupational analysis materials are released to various agencies where they are used in connection with employee utilization and assignment.—Rita Davidson.

41. Unsigned. *Soldiers, jobs, and the peace. Fortune* 28 (4) October, 1943: 111-15, 200-212.—The United States people want to know how we are going to demobilize a country totally mobilized for war. The report to the President on July 30, 1943, of the Conference on Postwar Readjustment of Civilian and Military Personnel suggests a threefold action on behalf of discharged soldiers: (1) three months' pay, plus family allowances (not to exceed \$300); (2) participation in all benefits of the social security system; (3) tuition and allowances for those who wish to continue professional education or qualify for training of not over one year. No coherent outline for action was submitted, however. The Reemployment Division of Selective Service has thus far used the draft machine and thrown upon the community the responsibility for assisting the soldier's job search. It will take more than civic spirit, however, to reintegrate millions of soldiers into America. The dissolution of the army will have to follow the principles of selective demobilization, probably being liquidated in consecutive cycles based on a system of priorities that takes into consideration military needs, popular sentiment for discharging those longest in the service first, social principles that married men with dependents take precedence over unmarried men, requirements of industry and civilian shortages for professional services. The forces of occupation will have to be several hundred times larger than they were in World War I. We are likely to keep between three and four million men under arms for a relatively long

period after the war ends. The period of mass demobilization of between seven and nine million servicemen will coincide with the period when more than 20 million war workers will have to readjust to peacetime industry. The idea of using the Army as a shelter for the veteran until he was a job has many adherents, but opponents point out that such a procedure interferes with his civil liberties and prevents freedom of movement to secure the next available job as a civilian war worker. Opportunities extended by the Army and the Navy for academic courses and technical training expressed in terms of industrial skills will help to make these veterans confident candidates for civilian jobs on grounds of performance, not charity. The present rate of employment constitutes overemployment. Children now in the labor force should go back to school; over-aged workers should be provided with old-age insurance; millions of women will return to their families. About 55 million men and women in the labor force and 3 million in defense forces would give postwar America a firm internal balance and a margin for sound expansion. If we succeed in keeping, during the war, a basically sound price structure, and if during the first phase of reconversion we regulate the release of buying power, and in the following period we succeed in securing world order and world trade, we need never again be interrupted for long by international depression. A certain amount of unemployment will be inescapable when war plants receive cancellations of orders; but the crucial problem will be the length of that phase. To provide the plank to cross this gap is the responsibility of Congress. Federal aid and a definitive policy on the disposition of the government's enormous wartime economic power is needed. The standards of future economic policy will be set by what we do, or fail to do, during demobilization. We shall have failed if Americans face a split society—veteran against civilian—and if an underemployed nation puts security above freedom.—Margaret Bernauer.

42. Zimmer, V. A. **The conservation of manpower in United States war industries.** *International Labour Review* XLVIII (5) November, 1943: 611-18.—Since the war began in 1939, a staggering increase in industrial accidents has occurred which has not only brought personal tragedy but has resulted in a loss of valuable manpower for war production. Many industrial accidents and occupational diseases can be prevented if known methods of accident and disease prevention are properly utilized. Since 1940, the U. S. Department of Labor has expanded its services in the fields of industrial safety and health in an effort to meet the needs of the war emergency. In that year, it established a National Committee for the Conservation of Manpower in War Industries, comprised of representatives of labor, management, and government, for the purpose of pooling available resources in a campaign against industrial disease and accidents. Working with the Division of Labor Standards, the committee obtained the services of six hundred highly trained safety engineers who, on a part-time basis, have visited thousands of war plants and have advised management of the best

methods of accident prevention. At date of writing 4,377 plants had been visited, and a decrease of as high as 74 per cent in the accident frequency rate had been reported. Through the Office of Education, courses in accident prevention have been given in schools of engineering throughout the country for foremen and other plant personnel to train them as instructors in safety education in their own plants. Through the labor members of the committee, an effort has been made to get workers themselves to accept more responsibility for preventing accidents. Labor-management committees on accident prevention have been established in some plants. In addition, several special bulletins have been published by the Labor Department covering fundamental steps in industrial accident and disease prevention.—Bradford G. White.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

43. Macmahon, Arthur W. **Senatorial confirmation.** *Public Administration Review* 3 (4) Autumn, 1943: 281-96.—The Senate has been seeking to bring more thousands of federal positions under its confirmation. Climaxing its efforts in 1943, it presented its demands to the House in the McKellar bill (S-575) and in two "McKellarism" riders on war agency appropriation bills. Terms of the bills would have affected about 30,000 employees. The efforts of Senator McKellar may be identified by their rate-of-pay determination of positions to be subject to Senatorial confirmation. More considerate senators agree that persons in policy-forming posts should be subject to confirmation but reject the catch-all salary definition. The acts passed the Senate despite vigorous opposition by the President, but were halted by the House after protracted argument. In the House, the bills with McKellarism riders failed to pass by only 170 to 176 when Representative Taber attempted a compromise, raising the standard from \$4,500 to \$5,500. The Senate's bold 1943 actions climaxed a succession of provisions begun in 1935 with bases for automatic control varying from salaries of \$4,500 to \$7,500 and variously affecting the Work Projects Administration, Social Security Board, U. S. Housing Authority, Department of Justice, staff of the Secretary of Commerce, Selective Service, Office of Civilian Defense, Army Specialist Corps, and War Manpower Commission. The W.P.A. stroke seriously compromised authority in that agency; and in 1943, Paul McNutt told the Senate that confirmation was hindering establishment of War Manpower field offices. Senatorial reasons for confirmation include personal clashes of particular senators with particular agencies, protection of the taxpayer against the alleged "pay roller" nature of wartime civil service clearance, and a desire to participate in the vast powers they dared not withhold or withdraw. Around these are thrown the mantle of perplexities of definition of terms and phrases included in the constitutional basis for confirmation. Potentially the consequences of broadening confirmation in non-commissioned services include delay and shelving of persons whom agencies want to employ; inflexibility of personnel action affecting ap-

pointees; incidental patronage leverages; and damaging though subtle psychological consequences with respect to recruitment and administration.—*Allen Sokoloff.*

44. Price, Don K. **The parliamentary and presidential systems** *Public Administration Review* 3 (4) Autumn, 1943: 317-34.—For many years a growing group, out of a dislike of executive influence on legislative proceedings and a desire to make administrative officials responsible to the legislature, has advocated a parliamentary form of government for the United States. The British system has been cited frequently as an example. Present-day British practice, however, unnoticed by our observers, has drifted far from the classic theory of parliamentary government. The very privilege of holding the Cabinet responsible makes it impossible for the House to think independently. Members of the party in power cannot vote against the Cabinet on any issue because if they do so they may force it to resign. Members of the opposition cannot vote for the Cabinet on any issue because that issue may be their own chance to gain control. Thus on any issue which the Cabinet may choose to consider policy the House must fall in line. In the matter of the responsibility of administrative officials, the situation also differs somewhat from the popular conception. Americans have so long been accustomed to using the British civil service as an example of rectitude and impartiality, while at the same time reproaching their own government for partisan patronage, that it is disconcerting to read that the British are showing dissatisfaction with their own system. The faults which they find may be traced in part to the parliamentary system. Cabinet members are selected as legislative leaders rather than for their administrative ability. Administration of the department is largely left to members of the permanent civil service so long as they do not get the minister into difficulties. In order to protect the permanence of the civil service, it is necessary that the minister take the blame for anything that his department does wrong and to get the credit for anything it does right. Thus initiative cannot be encouraged by recognition of good administration and the legislature cannot know what administrator is responsible for poor administration. The House cannot itself make decisions on the several major issues of policy that exist at one time nor can it control the administrators. It can only choose which Cabinet to entrust decisions to, and as a matter of practical politics it can only keep in office the men it is elected to keep in office. Under the presidential system the popular control of the executive is a double control: the people elect the president and the president holds his appointees responsible; the people elect the Congress, which has controls over the executive, and is free to differ with the executive on specific matters while supporting him on others, and to do so without endangering either his or its tenure. Administrators may be chosen for administrative abilities and have a vital interest in making a positive record for themselves. As a final point it may be noted that the parliamentary system has never proven its ability to accommodate the interests of diverse areas and populations. A federal

constitutional republic needs a separation of powers to keep its federalism adjusted to the wishes of the people. If a single national representative body is omnipotent, it is likely to disregard subordinate loyalties in carrying out its program.—*Howard R. Rice.*

45. Ryder, Stephen P. **Improvement of field personnel administration.** *Personnel Administration* 6 (1) September, 1943: 6-11.—The field personnel officer must recognize that he has a staff relationship to overall management and that there can be only one line of final authority on general policies. Although the field personnel chief and his staff may be technically or functionally responsible to the central personnel office, they, like all other employees in the field office, must be administratively responsible to the single line chief upon whom rests final responsibility for the entire field program. This line of authority insures the most effective field administration, obviates conflicting orders from more than one source, and permits top management to hold the responsible chief field official to strict accountability for performance. Within established policies, standards, and controls, there should be a decentralization of operating personnel transactions and procedures, and of delegation of authority to act, from the United States Civil Service Commission (as the central personnel agency) to the central office of the operating agency, from that office to its field offices, and from the field offices to the line supervisors responsible for the operating programs. In general the most effective relationships between the field office of the agency and the offices of the Commission will be developed and maintained through delegation of authority to the field office to act finally for the agency on all matters on which the field office of the Commission has also been delegated final authority to act. Many of us have been so busily engaged in recruiting to meet the tremendous expansion in defense and war activities that other equally important phases of a well-rounded personnel program have to some degree been neglected. We have now reached a leveling off point in the federal service and must direct our attention vigorously to the more effective utilization of the personnel we now have. Instead of seeking for specific remedies for absenteeism, turnover, poor morale, inadequate supervision, and slipshod work, we should now concentrate on the basic solution of such problems through effective programs of personnel management which will result in correcting them at their source. An effective management tool, significant in connection with personnel administration, is the "Management-Training Conference." The management-training conference program is based on the concept that the basic management processes can most effectively be carried out through participation of supervisors and employees at all levels. It is carried forward in small groups consisting of persons sharing a common responsibility for a particular phase of the work of the organization. The form of conference organization follows the internal structure of an operating division until the first line supervisor is reached as a conference leader. Such a program touches upon the personnel management program in practically all

its aspects but particularly those having to do with job instruction, position classification, employee relations, placement, work improvement, standards of performance, and service ratings. An additional excellent medium for the improvement of field personnel administration is the group of regional Councils of Personnel Administration. They are extremely valuable in promoting the interchange of ideas among field management officials and between these regional councils and the Commission's field and central offices and the Washington, D. C., Council. They also provide a forum for democratic discussion of field personnel matters, as well as a clearing house or coordinating center in which new or proposed policies and programs can be discussed.—*Michael Levine.*

PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

46. Pfiffner, John M. *How to delegate authority. Public Management* 25 (12) December, 1943: 351-53.—The confidence with which an executive can delegate authority depends upon two factors: the competence of those to whom the authority is delegated, and the effectiveness of the internal checks with which he has permeated the whole organization. Some executives are psychologically unable to forego attention to details. Where the desire to delegate exists, however, the following are some of the possible ways to accomplish that purpose: (1) select subordinate supervisors capable of shouldering responsibility; (2) define authority for which they are responsible; (3) train subordinates to carry responsibility; (4) establish general policies and disseminate them throughout the organization; (5) strive toward maximum standardization of both functional and housekeeping procedures; (6) establish internal checks which automatically show danger signals; (7) assure the flow of information up, down, and across the hierarchy; (8) carry on perpetual management planning. The fact that the chief has delegated a large degree of authority and responsibility does not mean that he has divorced himself entirely from operation. By using effective devices of management planning, he can extend the utmost discretion to his subordinates with assurance that, should the human factor fail, the system will set its automatic brakes into operation. Management planning, in fact, is the very heart and life blood of the problem of delegated authority.—*William T. McDonald.*

CLASSIFICATION; PAY

47. Blix, Ovid B. and Gill, Norman N. *Milwaukee local governments join in salary adjustment plan. National Municipal Review* 32 (9) October, 1943: 482-85.—Cooperation in the solution of metropolitan area problems has been given new impetus by the recent action of five units of government in metropolitan Milwaukee—city, county, public school, vocational school, and sewage district. This cooperation was secured by the creation of two committees—a policy committee composed of representatives of the legislative bodies of the five governmental units, and a technical committee composed of selected staff members from

the five units. Studies made by this latter group in 1942 and 1943 were transmitted, together with recommendations, to the policy committee, which in turn transmitted the recommendations to the respective legislative bodies for consideration and subsequent approval. This resulted in the adoption of resolutions by the city and county legislative bodies to provide for studies of the basic compensation scales and classification plans of the five units, with the intention of bringing about uniform classification and compensation plans for all employees of the five tax-levying bodies; and the adoption in July 1943 of a uniform plan for an automatic, annual, cost-of-living adjustment in the salaries of the approximately 13,000 employees of the five governmental units. The major elements of the cost-of-living adjustment plan are these: (1) the plan is uniform, and the cost-of-living adjustment is automatic and annual; (2) the plan of adjustment is based on an annual salary of \$1,620, recommended by the committees as the necessary minimum during the base period, 1935-39; (3) the rate of adjustment each year will be the difference between the United States Department of Labor cost-of-living index for Milwaukee, as of June 15 each year, and the base of 100 for the period 1935-39; (4) the basic cost-of-living adjustment is computed by multiplying the standard annual salary of \$1,620 by the annual rate of adjustment; (5) the adjustments will rise or fall as the cost-of-living index increases or decreases; and (6) the adjustment will be an addition to or deduction from each employee's base pay, and supersedes previous adjustments, temporary increases or bonuses in force in 1943.—*Audrey L. Briggs.*

48. Unsigned. *An appraisal of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics cost of living index. Journal of the American Statistical Association* 224 (38) December, 1943: 387-405.—The Bureau of Labor Statistics cost of living index has been used by statisticians, economists, and government officials for more than twenty-five years as a measure of changes in the prices paid for goods and services by city consumers of moderate income. It has been useful in wage negotiations and in computing "real" income and expenditures. Recently the index has been criticized as not being an accurate measure of consumer expenditures. Accordingly, a committee was appointed by the president of the American Statistical Association to review and appraise the construction and use of the index. The committee's general conclusions were: First, that within the limitations established for it, the cost of living index provides a trustworthy measure of changes in the prices paid by consumers for goods and services; and second, that many of the difficulties and doubts which have arisen concerning the index have their origins in attempts to use it uncritically for purposes to which it is not adapted. The committee examined the specific objections which have been raised to the index and checked, where possible, both the field work and the statistical analysis of data. Eleven recommendations were made by the committee, most of them relating to expanding the scope and coverage of the index.—*Robert I. Biren.*

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

49. Lawshe, C. H., Jr. and Thornton, G. R. A test battery for identifying potentially successful naval electrical trainees. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (5) October, 1943: 399-406.—The primary purpose of this study was the development of a battery of tests to identify those persons who are most apt to be successful in a Navy Training School for electricians. Secondly, results of the research were of value in providing information for counseling and other purposes with regard to trainees. About 600 trainees at the Purdue Naval Training School were tested prior to the start of fifteen weeks of training. Test scores were later correlated with the grade point average earned in the school. Statistical analysis using the Wherry-Doolittle technique showed that the three tests with the greatest significance in forecasting school success were: Test G, designed to evaluate ability to read simple measurements and solve simple arithmetical problems; Test H, designed to measure practical electrical information; and Test F, a fifteen-minute mental alertness test. The total administration time is 65 minutes for the three tests. Grade point averages predicted from the three tests correlated .82 with actual averages when the regression equation was tried out on a new group of trainees. It is indicated that the establishment of an admission requirement of a grade point average of 3.0 or 3.1, as predicted from the regression equation, would eliminate virtually all failures in the training school.—Norman J. Powell.

50. Teegarden, Lorene. Occupational differences in manipulative performance of applicants at a public employment office. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (5) October, 1943: 416-37.—Test results on the Spatial Relations, Kent-Shakow Form Board (simple and complex), measuring placing, turning, and plier dexterity are presented in both tabular and graphic form for 9 male and 7 female occupational groups. Applicants of a public employment center, classified according to occupation on the basis of information contained in their applications with no determination of efficiency on the job, length of experience, or level of position, form the occupational groups. The test results are reported in terms of the percentile of an unselected group to which the 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 90th percentile of the occupational group correspond. The test results indicate some differences among the groups which appear to be greater in the tests involving problem solving, accuracy of movement, and reaction to multiplicity of details. The question is raised as to whether the traits tested are true aptitudes or acquired skills, but no answer is suggested.—Ralph Mueller.

PLACEMENT; SERVICE STANDARDS AND EVALUATION

51. Halsey, George D. Making and using service ratings. *Advanced Management* 8 (4) October-December, 1943: 115-26.—The purpose of the service-rating program of the regional office of the Farm

Credit Administration at Columbia, South Carolina, is to provide at regular intervals as complete and as objective an evaluation as is possible of every phase of an employee's performance on the job. The ratings can aid in achieving fairness in matters of salary increases, promotions, transfers, and layoffs, in "alerting" supervisors and employees, and in planning training programs. Ratings are made yearly by supervisors and reviewed by next higher executives, department heads, and the unit executive committees. Each employee is notified of his rating. Quality, volume, knowledge of work, initiative, attitude toward work, and toward others are the bases for rating, with numerical values assigned to a scale within the categories which, in turn, have varying values resulting in a maximum possible score of 100. Ratings are based on a comparison of employees within each class rather than theoretical perfection. The establishment of the best, poorest, and average within the class on each trait is suggested as a starting point for raters. A general rating is also made to compensate for unusual factors not reflected by numerical gradations, as well as a promotional potential rating. Ample space is provided for comments by supervisors and reviewing raters. Employees of less than three months standing are rated by general comments. (Article contains a reproduction of the rating form, an employee notification form, nine training and supervision rules, seven "correction interview" rules, and four case problem solutions.)—Charles B. Briley.

52. Harris, W. S. Should employees rate supervisors. *Personnel Journal* 22 (7) January, 1944: 243-54.—The rights of supervisors to take any drastic action that concerns the individual employee are being progressively circumscribed. Democratic controls in the employment field reflected in the committee method of running affairs is reflected again in the practice of employee rating of supervisors. Such employee ratings bring to both groups a complete realization of their mutual interdependence and their obligation to cooperate. Training programs and analyses by superior supervisors are defective when leadership qualities of supervisors further down the line are not evaluated by the real authority, the supervised employee. The philosophy of the modern employee is of the democratic type in that he will oppose concentration of privilege, will question unmodified authority, and will seek responsibility. Employees desire to participate in the development and execution of policy and procedure, and the assignment of a new responsibility—that of rating their supervisors—will result in a new and deeper interest in the job. Two practical benefits result from employee rating of supervisors: (1) it supplements in an authoritative way the management's information on the leadership qualities of supervisors; and (2) it trains the supervisor and potential supervisor in desirable supervisory leadership qualities. Ratings by employees may cause management to re-evaluate a supervisor's performance, but evaluations by employees cannot weaken a supervisor's authority. During the early stages of employee rating of supervisors it may be advisable to provide for the anonymity of the rater, but generally where the

demand for anonymity is the greatest, there is also the greatest need for employee rating. The objective is the development of a sense of responsibility in an employee for his work, and the privilege of evaluating his supervisor is one means of creating this sense of responsibility. Employee evaluations serve as a mirror to reflect employee dissatisfaction and bring to light for observation possible obstacles to efficient production. (A sample rating sheet is given.)—George H. Bowers.

53. Stahl, O. Glenn. Overhauling federal "efficiency ratings." *Personnel Administration* 6 (1) September, 1943: 12-14.—The fundamental purpose of efficiency ratings is the evaluation of employee performance. The purposes of performance evaluation are: (1) to develop standards of satisfactory performance; (2) to encourage employees toward better performance; (3) to refine and validate qualification requirements, training needs, and other personnel techniques; (4) to objectify the application of policies in selecting candidates for placement and promotion, salary advancements, etc. With the exception of salary advancements, every one of the above mentioned purposes can be adequately met by a system of performance reporting without a scheme of categories or labels to attach to employee performance—simply by a straight-forward recording of an employee's demonstrated achievements on the job. It is not necessary to classify employees by quality in order to achieve the four major purposes of performance evaluation. We need only to provide some method of reporting concretely their actual performance. The "optional procedure for the war period," allowed by the United States Civil Service Commission, omits element markings and preserves adjective ratings, thus retaining the least useful and most objectionable feature of the rating system and discarding the only part which carried some hope of administrative utility. The present rating system could be overhauled with practicability by substituting for it a system of performance analysis and reporting, supplemented by broad certifications of satisfactoriness of performance where certain personnel processes require it. This would eliminate a lot of fancy "reviews" and "committees" and it can be done now.—Robert A. Hollo-way.

WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

54. Kirkpatrick, Forrest H. Music in industry. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 27 (3) June, 1943: 268-73.—The current use of music in industry is based mainly on the belief that decreased efficiency is the result of boredom from performing uniform and repetitive tasks and assumes that music breaks this monotony and thereby increases production. The fact that workers feel that time passes more quickly when they are thinking of other things suggests that the apparent favorable influence of music upon output is due to its ability to add to the imagery in the consciousness of the worker. There is much opinion but little experimental evidence of the effects of different types of music but the conclusion from a survey of the experimental literature

on the subject indicates that, if properly controlled, it may increase happiness and contentment in work, improve output, lessen fatigue and make the work setting more attractive. The evidence also seems to indicate that music is most effective for workers who perform repetitive manual tasks. As a general rule, two or perhaps three periods of music of less than a half hour's duration produce the most satisfactory results.—Adrian E. Gory.

55. Unsigned. Principal features of workmen's compensation laws as of September, 1943. *Monthly Labor Review* 57 (4) October, 1943: 729-48.—With the exception of Mississippi, every state in the Union has a workmen's compensation law. Of 53 jurisdictions (including states, territories, the District of Columbia and the federal government) having workmen's compensation acts, 23 are compulsory and 30 are elective. The comparative analyses of the general features include scope of legislation, security for payment, amount and period of benefits, provisions in special cases, and claim administration. None of the laws applies to all employees, the principal exemptions being agricultural and domestic service workers, nonhazardous employments, public employees, casual workers, and numerical exceptions. In 33 of the jurisdictions, employees of the state and its subdivisions are included in the law. To make certain that benefit payments are made when due, the states require that the covered employer shall obtain insurance or give proof of his qualification to carry his own risk. The amount of benefit received by injured workers in the several jurisdictions varies according to such factors as a percentage of wage, the term or period of payment, and, in most states, a fixed maximum or weekly total payment. All of the states except Oregon provide that there shall be a waiting period without compensation, ranging from a minimum of 1 day to a maximum of 14 days immediately following an injury. There are two general methods of claim administration: (1) by an administrative commission or board, and (2) by the courts. In states where the law is administered by a commission or board, the state agency usually has exclusive jurisdiction over the determination of the facts, with appeals to the courts limited to questions of law. (The article contains numerous tables showing the relationships between features covered in each state law).—Paul T. Anderson.

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

56. Cooper, Joseph D. Criteria for the organization of employee service activities. *Personnel Administration* 6 (1) September, 1943: 15-17.—An employee service officer must be prepared to advise with employee leaders on the most effective administration of their group activities. It is important that criteria be established by which the value of such activities can be measured in order to prevent the program from expanding beyond the capacity of either a service officer or employees themselves to give it necessary time and attention. All effort should be related to a stated objective. The major objective of a total personnel program is to increase and conserve the productive

capacity of employees. An employee service program contributes to this objective insofar as it is concerned with personal and environmental factors rooted in the community, the office, the home, and the individual himself. Constructive methods used in working with groups and with individuals are different and the standards of measurement that may be set up to evaluate the effectiveness of either service will therefore vary. Employee activities are largely a matter of human relationships. Activities should be initiated in so far as is administratively feasible or permissible within the smallest convenient unit of the organization. The smaller the unit of activity, the greater will be the bond of unity and association; the greater this sense of association, the greater will be the response to a particular type of social stimulation. There should be a direct relationship between the percentage of time expended in the organization and maintenance of an activity and the percentage of employees who actually benefit. If the activity is of a continuing nature, the amount of time and energy expended should be computed as a percentage relative to the entire period of the activity. The extent to which employee activities serve as channels for guiding employees into a normal community environment is a measure of their effectiveness. Voluntary employee activities can be of great value in orienting new employees. Clubs in which the latest or newest employee automatically replaces the member who has been there longest are an example of such an activity. Orientation or sponsorship plans along the lines of "big brother" programs have many values in a schedule of employee activities.—*Thor W. Bruce.*

57. Stats, Herbert E. **Calling for new ideas.** *National Municipal Review* 32 (11) December, 1943: 577-79.—Tremendous administrative burdens imposed upon government and industry at war have stimulated the development of systems which solicit the suggestions of the rank and file employee. Favored by labor-management committees, suggestion systems have proved useful aids in solving production problems in industry. Aside from some few scattered systems in the federal service, however, such programs have gained little currency in government. Typical of plans which may be developed at the state level is that formulated by the Minnesota Division of Administrative Management, wherein all personnel below the supervisory grades are invited to participate. Suggestions are passed upon by a board composed of the Commissioner of Administration, Director of Civil Service, and the head of the department with which the suggestion is concerned. Both financial and non-financial awards are provided. The importance of promptness in acknowledging suggestions and making awards is stressed by those responsible for the plan.—*R. L. Randall.*

58. Sutherland, Robert L. **Worker indifference.** *Personnel Journal* 22 (6) December, 1943: 201-05.—Instead of a negative approach to the problem of "worker indifference," it is well to begin more fundamentally by understanding the bases for the development of a sense of responsibility within a person or a group. Regu-

lar habits of living and of community relationships help to develop responsibility. Although it is difficult to instill this feeling in our shifting industrial population, much can be done by solving housing, recreation, and other related problems. Basic also to the development of a sense of responsibility is the knowledge that one's family and neighbors expect one to succeed. Thousands of individuals have never had the benefit of such motivation and no one approach will accomplish the task of providing it. Any relationship, however, which strengthens family pride and the feeling of importance in the community will help, and encouragement should be given to community agencies whose purpose is to improve personal adjustment and strengthen family life. Industry itself needs to become more personalized and every effort should be made to develop personal and group relationships within the plant. Worker responsibility can be developed if employees are given an opportunity to participate in planning the work, in solving problems, and in other phases of the management process. Proper orientation and placement of workers, definite assignments, encouragement of employee expression, and the fostering of group pride through friendly competition between production units further aid in generating worker responsibility.—*Charles W. Fredriksen.*

SEPARATION; RETIREMENT

59. Cushman, Robert E. **The purge of federal employees accused of disloyalty.** *Public Administration Review* 3 (4) Autumn, 1943: 297-316.—The active campaign to deal with the problem of disloyalty of federal employees has moved through three channels: Congress, the executive branch, and the Civil Service Commission. The congressional "purge" in July, 1943, of three federal employees by withholding money for their salaries stemmed from the activities of Congressman Dies, chairman of the House Committee to Investigate Un-American Activities, and the work of the Kerr Committee, created to investigate and report upon the fitness of accused employees to hold federal office. The writer reaches three conclusions with regard to the congressional "purge." The first of these is that the action is unconstitutional as a legislative usurpation of the executive power of removal, as a short-circuiting of the procedural requirements of impeachment, and as a bill of attainder. His second conclusion is that the action is both unwise and unjust. It is unwise as a serious assault upon good administration. It is unjust as an indirect invasion of freedom of speech and freedom of press, as the establishment of political tests as qualifications for holding federal office, and as a stimulus to "witch-hunting" and intolerance. Finally, the procedure followed in effecting the "purge" was a denial at practically every stage of long-established standards of procedural fair play. As the result of legislative mandates to the executive departments on the matter of subversive employees there have been two successive inter-departmental committees on employee investigations. The first of these committees was set up by the Attorney General in April, 1942, to furnish information on the so-called "front" organizations to all employ-

ing agencies and to explain to the agencies how to use the FBI investigation reports effectively. On February 5, 1943, President Roosevelt created, by executive order, a new Interdepartmental Committee on Employee Investigations. This Committee, like the former, acts in a purely advisory capacity and can secure compliance with its recommendations only by persuading the President to intervene directly. The Civil Service Commission is concerned only with the loyalty of those employees who have not yet been permanently certified as members of the civil service. If the Commission's investigation of these persons shows them to be "unsuitable," the Commission will order them dropped. From the beginning of the war effort to March, 1943, there were 654 refusals by the Commission to certify employees on grounds of disloyalty. Recently the Commission's handling of disloyalty cases has been sharply attacked on the ground that the investigators ask questions which would disqualify persons on the basis of

cosmopolitan associations and liberal political and economic views. Officers of the Commission state that such questions violate Commission policy; furthermore, a study of the Manual of Instructions issued to the investigators gives the impression that if the Commission's investigators do a poor job it is because they are poor investigators and not because they have poor or vicious instructions. To meet current criticism of its work, it is suggested that the Commission should clarify its working tests of loyalty, reveal more fully to the public its management of loyalty investigations, reduce the number of loyalty cases by stricter tests to determine prima-facie cases of disloyalty, and if possible simplify its procedure. Finally, it is suggested that there should be created a permanent advisory appeal board composed of citizens not otherwise connected with the government for the purpose of reviewing cases of alleged disloyalty and making recommendations thereon.—*Ray Mullins.*

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